THE

SCOTS MAGAZINE,

AND

Edinburgh Literary Miscellany,

FOR OCTOBER 1804:

With an Engraving of ROSLIN CASTLE, *from the* N. E.

CONTENTS.

ORIGINAL CORRESPONDENCE. *Page*

Register of the Weather for *October* 1804, - - - - - - - - - - - - 730
High Water at *Leith* for *Nov.* - - - ib.
Description of *Roslin Castle*, with an Engraving, - - - - - - - - - - 731
On the supposed Identity of *Cunningham* the Critic and *Cunningham* the Historian, - - - - - - - - - - ib.
Celestial Phenomena for *November* 1804, - - - - - - - - - - - - 733
Memoirs of the Progress of Manufactures, Chemistry, Science, and the Fine Arts, - - - - - - - - - 735
A Survey of the *British* Empire in *Europe* at the beginning of the 19th Century, - - - - - - - - - - - - 737
Some information respecting the *Ettrick* Shepherd, - - - - - - - - - 744
On the Permanency of the Causes which retard the Progress of Truth, - - - - - - - - - - - - - 745
Remarks on the late Corn Bill, - - 750
The Philosophical and Literary Inquirer, - - - - - - - - - - - - 753
Taxes on Luxury and Vanity proposed, - - - - - - - - - - - - - 756
On the Duties of Women, - - - - - ib.
Coincidence of Manners, Customs, &c. among different nations, - - 757
Inquiry concerning a Passage in *Goldsmith*'s Deserted Village, - - - - 759
Observations on the State of the Manufacture of Salt in *Scotland* in 1787, - - - - - - - - - - - - - 760
—Of the Situation of the Works, and Number of Salt Pans, - - ib.
—Of the Quantity of Salt made in *Scotland*, - - - - - - - 761
—Of the Quality of *Scots* Salt, - ib.
—Of refining of Salt, - - - - - 762
—Of *English* Rock Salt, - - - - ib.
The *Edinburgh* Practice of Politeness, or Rules for Genteel Behaviour, - - - - - - - - - - - - - 764

EXTRACTS. *Page*

Books and Pamphlets published in *London* in *September* 1804, - - - 766
Literary and Scientific Notices, - 769

POETRY.

Lovely *Jean*, - - - - - - - - - - - - 772
Stanzas to *A. B.* on the Birth of his Son, - - - - - - - - - - - - - 773
Sonnet, - - - - - - - - - - - - - ib.
Morning, - - - - - - - - - - - - ib.
To the *Scottish* Muse, - - - - - - - 774
Defence of Snuff-taking, - - - - - 775
The Married Man, - - - - - - - - 776

Proceedings of Parliament, - - - - 777
—General View of the Finances for the current year, - - - - - ib.

MONTHLY REGISTER.

Foreign Intelligence.—*France*, - - 780
Sweden and *France*, - - - - - - - - 783
Russia and *France*, - - - - - - - - 786
Diet of *Ratisbon*, - - - - - - - - - 789
Sale of *German* Estates, - - - - - - 790
French fleet in *India*, - - - - - - - 792
West Indies.—Fire at *Trinidad*, - - 794
Egypt.—*Mahommed Elfi Bey*, - - - ib.
Ghezzar Pacha, - - - - - - - - - - 795
England.—Naval Operations, - - - 796.
New-Invented Fire Ships, - - - - 799
Affairs in *Scotland*, - - - - - - - - 801
Proceedings of the Circuit Court of Justiciary, - - - - - - - - - - - ib.
——— of a General Court-Martial, held at *Edinburgh* for the trial of six prisoners, - - - - - - - - 803
Election of the Magistrates and Council of *Edinburgh*, - - - - - - - 805
Prices of Grain per quarter, at Corn Exchange, *London*, - - - - - - - 806
——— at *Haddington*, - - - ib.
Marriages and Births, - - - - - - ib.
Deaths, - - - - - - - - - - - - - 807

State

State of the BAROMETER, in inches and decimals, and of Farenheit's THERMOMETER in the open air, taken in the morning before sun-rise, and at noon; and the quantity of rain-water fallen, in inches and decimals, from Sept. 26. to October 25. 1804, in the vicinity of Edinburgh.

1804. Sept.	Barom.	Thermom. M.	Thermom. N.	Rain. In. Pts.	Weather.
26	30.3	44	62	——	Cloudy
27	30.3	44	64	——	Clear
28	30.281	49	54	——	Cloudy
29	30.08	48	54	——	Ditto
30	29.78	44	56	——	Ditto
Oct. 1	29.65	47	62	——	Ditto
2	29.62	53	63	——	Ditto
3	29.33	58	60	0.02	Showers
4	29.66	48	58	0.05	Rain
5	29.1	52	57	0.01	Showers
6	29.6	46	57	0.03	Ditto
7	29.41	50	51	0.02	Ditto
8	29.31	43	52	0.05	Rain
9	29.75	42	57	——	Clear
10	29.63	49	54	0.01	Showers
11	29.2	44	56	——	Clear
12	29.13	34	55	0.02	Shower
13	29.3	34	51	0.05	Rain
14	28.95	43	52	0.051	Ditto
15	28.92	41	54	——	Clear
16	29.3	41	54	——	Ditto
17	29.2	44	56	0.052	Rain
18	29.56	40	54	0.051	Ditto
19	29.593	54	58	0.02	Shower
20	29.5	54	58	0.02	Ditto
21	29.55	44	52	——	Clear
22	29.31	48	50	1.615	Rain
23	29.32	47	51	——	Cloudy
24	29.72	37	51	——	Ditto
25	29.71	44	48	0.02	Shower

Quantity of Rain 2.089

High Water at LEITH For NOVEMBER 1804.

Days.	Morn. H. M.	Even. H. M.
Th. 1.	1 4	1 26
Fr. 2.	1 48	2 10
Sa. 3.	2 33	2 57
Su. 4.	3 21	3 46
M. 5.	4 11	4 35
T. 6.	5 2	5 26
W. 7.	5 51	6 16
Th. 8.	6 41	7 5
Fr. 9.	7 28	7 52
Sa. 10.	8 15	8 38
Su. 11.	9 1	9 24
M. 12.	9 47	10 10
T. 13.	10 33	10 57
W. 14.	11 22	11 48
Th. 15.	— —	0 15
Fr. 16.	0 42	1 12
Sa. 17.	1 42	2 13
Su. 18.	2 45	3 18
M. 19.	3 51	4 28
T. 20.	4 56	5 26
W. 21.	5 56	6 25
Th. 22.	6 53	7 18
Fr. 23.	7 44	8 7
Sa. 24.	8 30	8 52
Su. 25.	9 14	9 35
M. 26.	9 56	10 17
T. 27.	10 38	10 59
W. 28.	11 20	11 42
Th. 29.	— —	0 3
Fr. 30.	0 26	0 49

MOON's PHASES, FOR NOVEMBER 1804.

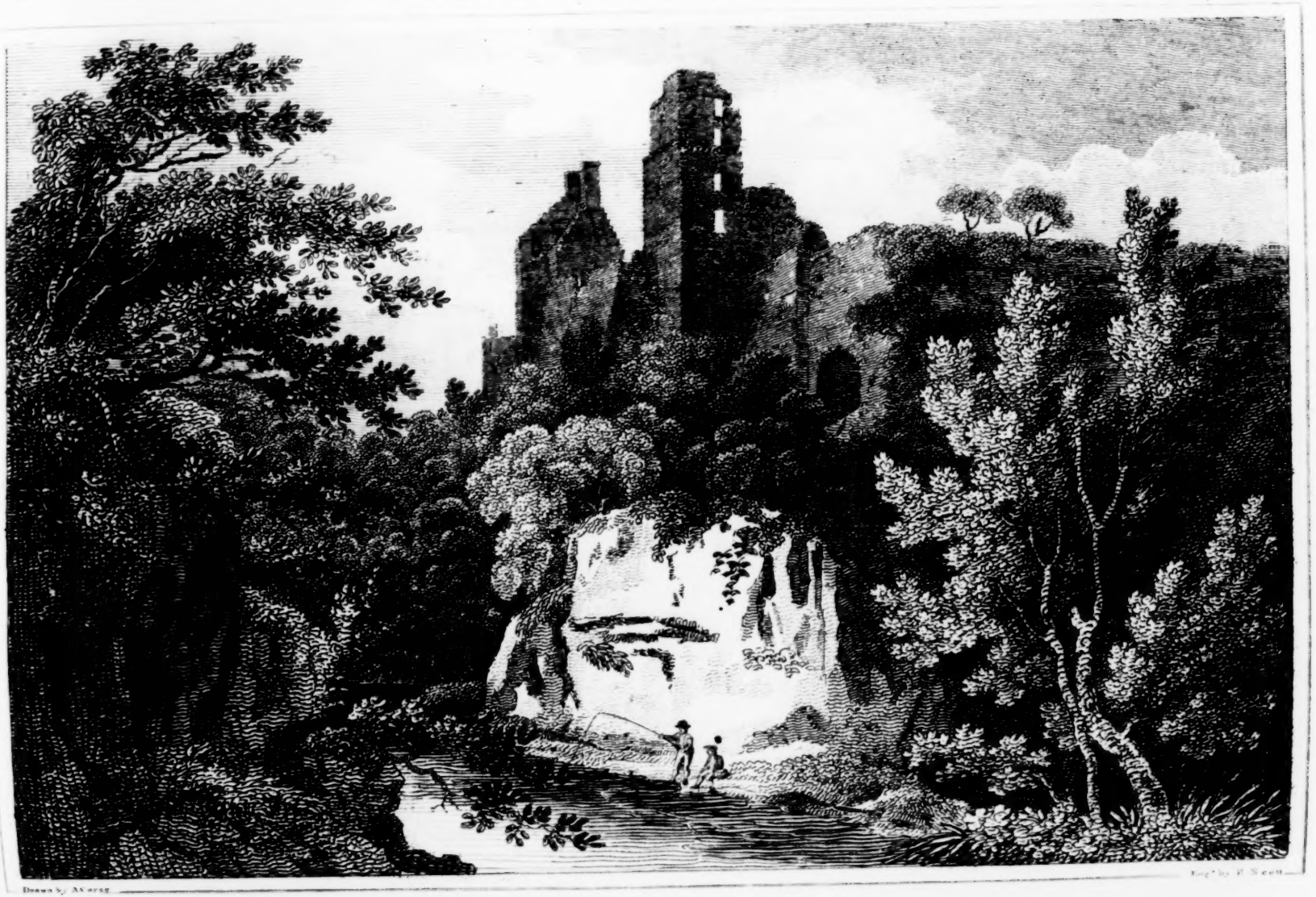
Apparent time at Edinburgh.

	D.	H.	M.	
N. Moon,	2.	10	37	Morn.
First Qrtr.	10.	3	6	Even.
Full Moon,	17.	10	48	Morn.
Laft Qrtr.	24.	4	9	Even.

OBSERVATIONS.

Nov. 4. King William landed, 1688.
5. Gun Powder Plot, 1605.
11. Martinmas.
12. Session sits.
30. St Andrew's Day.

THE



VIEW of ROSLIN CASTLE, *from the* N. E.

THE Scots Magazine, AND EDINBURGH LITERARY MISCELLANY,

For OCTOBER 1804.

ORIGINAL CORRESPONDENCE.

DESCRIPTION *of* ROSLIN CASTLE, *with a* VIEW.

ROSLIN CASTLE, situated in the parish of Laswade, Mid-Lothian, on the banks of the North Esk, is a building of great antiquity, and associated in the minds of Scotchmen, with the pleasing melody of the song of which it forms the subject, and the splendid victories which their ancestors gained near its site. Here, in 1302, the English army under John de le Grave suffered three defeats in one day from the Scotch army under the chiefs Cumyn and Fraser. It appears to have been a favourite residence of the family of the Sinclairs. The ruins of it at present remaining form, with the rapid river, and the abrupt and precipitous rocks covered with wood through which it flows, a view highly picturesque.

On the Supposed Identity of CUNNINGHAM *the* CRITIC *and* CUNNINGHAM *the* HISTORIAN.

To the Editor.

SIR,

I Am one of your constant readers, who greatly approve of the new arrangement of your useful miscellany, which dedicates a somewhat larger portion than formerly, to antiquities, and to literature. I am thus led to hope, that you will spare me a little space, for a few observations, about the puzzling question, Whether Alexander Cunningham, who published Horace, and Alexander Cunnigham, who wrote the History of Great Britain, were one and the same person?

I was led to this subject by a petulant remark of that captious biographer, Mr David Irving, who thinks that the Editor and the Historian were the same, and reprehends others for not thinking with him upon this difficult subject.

Some of this perplexity has plainly arisen from the inconsequential manner in which the Rev. Dr Thomson, the Editor of Cunningham's history, has written upon the point, though he appears to think that the historian and critic were two distinct

tinct persons, with all his desire to convert them into one, in order to elevate the hero of his tale.

It is a fact, which ought to abate the confidence of a positive writer, that there were several Alexander Cunninghams living in the same age. There was an Alexander Cunningham, Professor of *Humanity*, in the University of Edinburgh, at the end of the seventeenth century. There was an Alexander Cunningham who was *Professor of Law*, in the same College, during Queen Anne's reign; and there were the two *Sosias*, the objects of this paper; the travelling governor with Lord Lorn, the editor of Horace; and the historian of Great Britain.

That Cunningham the Critic, says Dr Thomson, was a native of North Britain, sufficiently appears from the editions of the Latin classics that bear his name; that he went early in life, and lived long in Holland, appears from general and incontroverted tradition, and from the traces that are to be found of him in the writings of the critics on the Continent. That this Mr Cunningham, adds Dr Thomson, was generally reported to have died in Holland, is confirmed by a letter quoted by Lord Hyndford. Mr George Paton, who appears to be more minutely acquainted with the history of this Mr Cunningham than any other person, as Dr Thomson acknowledges, says, that the two Mr Logans, the father and son, the relations of this Mr Cunningham, had often told him, that *he died in Holland*. Here, then, is *general tradition*, and *positive information*, that Alexander Cunningham, the Critic, died in Holland. Now, Mr Professor Mackay, who was the intimate friend of this Alexander Cunningham, states in *his obituary*, at the time, that, "Alexander Cunning-"ham, *literator eximius*, died at the "*Hague*, December 1730." We thus perceive, from this *record of mortality*, that the Critic and Editor of Horace died, as tradition and Mr Paton said, in Holland, and at the Hague, the place of his residence, in December 1730.

From the manner in which Dr Thomson speaks of Cunningham's Horace, it should seem that he had never seen the book. He always speaks of it as having been printed and published at the Hague; whereas the title-page of my copy of this book states expressly, that it was printed at London, in 1721, for Vailant and Prevost, though the preface is dated from the Hague in December 1721. But Alexander Cunningham the Historian was then at London, as Dr Thomson clearly shows.

Having, in this manner, buried the Critic, the *literator eximius* of Professor Mackay, let us trace the Historian from his cradle to his grave. He was born, of whatever family, in 1654. He appears to have been liberally educated. He probably commenced his career as a travelling tutor. At the age of thirty-four he seems to have travelled through Holland, in 1688. He probably attended Lord Lorn when he went to command his father's regiment, in 1694, at the age of seventeen. Cunningham was still with that young soldier, in 1697, after the peace of Ryswick. Cunningham had now conceived *the project* of writing *the history* of his own times, as we may infer from his letter to Mr Carstairs. He was soon employed in more important matters. While he journeyed through France, as a travelling tutor, 1701, he was entrusted by the Government to sound the French Ministers about a treaty of commerce. He returned to England in 1703. During several years, he appears to have had his share in the political intrigues of those factious times. He again travelled through Holland, to Italy,

Italy, in 1706 and 1707. He resided in London during the years 1708 and 1709. But he again travelled abroad, towards the close of the year 1710, with Lord Londsdale. In 1711, and 1712, he remained in Italy. He was probably in England at the demise of Queen Anne, when he was well stricken in years. He was, at length, to visit Italy, not as a travelling tutor, but as the King's representative. On the 15th of August 1715, as we know from the *Historical Register*, he was appointed his Majesty's resident at Venice, in the room of Christian Cole, removed. From this residence, Mr Cunningham returned to London in 1720, at the ripe age of *sixty-six*, when it was not very likely that he would busy himself about an edition of Horace, though he, doubtless, found leisure, at Venice, to compile his history.

He probably now travelled no more, but the period of rest, and of obscurity, is the same. We only know, that he was visited by Lord Hyndford in 1735, when he appeared to be a very old man, sitting in a great chair, habited in his night-gown; and he died on the 15th of May 1737, in the eighty-third year of his age, and was buried in the chancel of St Martin's church. When I was, lately, at London, I had the curiosity, which Dr Thomson seems not to have had, to look into the will of our historian, at Doctors Commons. He therein states himself to have been of St Martin's in the fields. He directs his landlord, Ewen, to bury him, but not to expend more than eighty pounds. He recognizes his nephew Archibald Cunningham at Greenock, to whom he left the bulk of his fortune; he mentions another nephew, James Cunningham. He speaks of Governor Cunningham of Jamaica, as his relation. He bequeathed eight thousand pounds, in trust, for his nieces, in case of the death of his nephew Archibald; and, in this case, he left four thousand pounds to Cunningham of Craigends. It is apparent, from this will, that the *Historian* had not any real estate; while the *Critic* left the estate of *Block*, in Ayrshire, to his relations.

But it is unnecessary to follow Dr Thomson into such reasonings. The Editor of Horace died at the Hague in 1730. The Historian of Great Britain died at London in 1737; and these decisive facts evince, with full conviction, that the *Critic* and the *Historian* were two different persons, notwithstanding the assertions of Mr Irving. Those proofs also shew, that the biographer of Ruddiman was right, when he said that Mr George Logan was not the nephew of Alexander Cunningham the *Historian*, whatever Mr Irving may dogmatize, with more petulance than propriety.

CRITO.

St Andrews, 1st Oct. 1804.

CELESTIAL PHENOMENA *for* NOVEMBER 1804.

Thursday, November 1st.

THE planet VENUS will be in conjunction with *β Virginis*, a star of the third magnitude, situated in the southern wing of the Virgin, in longitude $5^s..24^0..28'..15''$, and latitude 41'..35" north. The latitude of Venus being $1^0..1'..25''$ north, the nearest approach of their centers will be 19'..50", and the planet will pass to the north of the star.

Wednesday, November 7th.

The planet MARS is at present situated in longitude $4^s..9^0..31'..14''$, and latitude $1^0..43'..56''$ north. His declination is $19^0..34'..18''$ north, and he will come to the meridian about 54 minutes after 5 o'clock in the morning.

morning. Mars is situated in the constellation Cancer, about 17½ degrees to the west of *Regulus*.

Thursday, November 8th.

The planet VENUS will be in conjunction with *η Virginis*, a star of the third magnitude, in the southern wing of the Virgin, situated in longitude 6ˢ..2°..6′..44. The latitude of Venus being 1°..26′..9″ north, and that of *η Virginis* 1°..22′..24″ north, the distance of their centers at the time of conjunction will be 3′..45″, and the planet will pass to the north of the star.

On the same day, about 7 minutes after 11 o'clock in the evening, the planet JUPITER will be in conjunction with the sun. The immersions of his satellites will now become visible, but none of them will be seen till the morning of the 28th December, when the first will immerge into Jupiter's shadow.

Tuesday, November 13th.

The planet JUPITER is at present situated in longitude 7ˢ..17°..22′..49″, and latitude 52′..53″ north. His declination is 16°..12′..3″ south, and the time of his southing 11ʰ..40′ in the forenoon. Jupiter is situated in the constellation Libra, forming a right-angled triangle with *α* and *β Libræ*, Jupiter being at the vertex adjacent to the right angle.

Sunday November 18th.

CONJUNCTION OF VENUS AND SATURN.

About seven o'clock in the morning there will be a beautiful conjunction between the planets Venus and Saturn. The longitude of the two planets, at the time of conjunction, will be 6ˢ..12°..23′..42″. The latitude of Venus being 1°..51′..11″ north, and that of Saturn 2°..15′..55 north; the nearest approach of their centers will be 24′..44″, and Venus will pass below Saturn at a distance considerably less than the Moon's diameter. The planets will rise almost due East about a quarter past three o'clock in the morning, and will come to the meridian about a quarter past nine. If this phenomenon be viewed with a telescope of considerable aperture and magnifying power, both the planets will be contained within its field of view; and the horns of Venus will form a beautiful contrast with the ring of Saturn. Both the planets are situated between *η* and *θ Virginis*. Venus is about 2 degrees to the west of *θ*, and about 9 degrees to the west of *Spica Virginis*, a star of the first magnitude.

Monday, November 19th.

The planet SATURN is at present situated in longitude 6ˢ..12°..31′..11″, and latitude 2°..15′..49″ north. His declination is 2°..51′..2″ south, and he will come to the meridian about nine o'clock in the morning.

Tuesday, November 20th.

The planet VENUS will be in conjunction with *θ Virginis*, a star of the 4th magnitude, situated in the Virgin's southern wing in longitude 6ˢ..15°..30′..57″, and latitude 1°..45′..33″ north. The latitude of Venus being 1°..56′..18″ North, the distance of their centers, at the time of conjunction, will be 10′..45″, and the planet will pass to the north of the star.

Wednesday, November 21st.

The GEORGIUM SIDUS is at present situated in longitude 6ˢ..19°..39′..18″, and latitude 36′..51″ north. Its declination is 7°..7′..56″ south, and it will culminate at 18 minutes after 9 o'clock in the morning.

Thursday, November 22d.

The Sun will enter the sign *Sagittarius* at 52 minutes after 10 o'clock in the morning. His longitude will then be exactly 8 signs.

Tuesday, November 27th.

The planet MERCURY will arrive at his superior conjunction with the Sun about 7 minutes after 2 o'clock in the morning.

Murrayfield,
Oct. 18. 1804. } *D. B.*

Memoirs

HAVING in a former number laid before our readers an account of the discovery of a new planet which has turned out to be false, they will probably be disposed to receive with hesitation any notice of a similar kind. We can assure them, however, that a NEW PLANET was discovered by Mr Harding, of the observatory of Lilienthal, near Bremen, on the evening of Sept. 1st 1804. Mr Harding was employed in constructing an atlas of all the stars down to the eighth magnitude, which lie within and near the orbits of the two new planets *Ceres* and *Pallas*; and while examining the stars in the constellation Pisces, he observed a small star, of the eighth magnitude, of which he could find no account in the *Histoire Celeste* of Lalande. Not knowing its true place, he put it down in his maps as accurately as he could estimate with his eye; but two days after, when he looked for it again, he found that it was gone, but perceived another star, exactly like it, a little to the southwest of its place, which did not appear in that place before. Suspecting that this moveable star was a planet, he examined it again on the 5th September, and perceiving that it had moved farther to the southwest, he found his conjecture verified. This new planet is perfectly similar to Ceres in its light and apparent magnitude. It is surrounded by no nebula, and moves retrograde towards the west with increasing southern declination. The following observations have been made by Mr Harding and Dr Olbers:

	H.	M.	S.	R. ASCENSION.	DECLINATION.
Sept. 1.	10	0	0	2° 24′ 0″	0° 37′ North.
4.	—	—	—	2 1 0	0 1 South.
5.	11	8	0	1 51 51	0 11$\frac{2}{5}$ S.
6.	—	—	—	1 44 0	0 24 S.
7.	—	—	—	1 37 0	0 36 S.
8.	8	11	20	1 29 39	0 47$\frac{1}{5}$ S.
10.	8	15	0	1 12 55	1 11$\frac{11}{12}$ S.

The two last observations were made by Dr Olbers. The daily motion of the new planet in right ascension is about 7′..56″, or 31″.7 in time retrograde; and its daily motion in declination 12′..34″ south.

Several important experiments on the effects of heat modified by compression have been lately made by Sir JAMES HALL, Bart. He found that pounded carbonate of lime, produced by the trituration of chalk, marble, &c. agglutinates at 22° of Wedgewood, in strong close vessels, and becomes limestone. In some experiments the chalk was not only agglutinated but actually fused, the substance exhibiting every proof of a viscid fluidity, similar to that of melting sealing wax. In some specimens of fused chalk, the chrystallization of newly-formed spar is distinctly visible, the chrystalline mass consisting of parallel plates, some of which are discernible by the naked eye. The learned Baronet succeeded also in constraining the bituminous matter of coal to a certain degree in red heat, so as to bring the substance into complete fusion, and to retain its faculty of burning with flame. From animal and vegetable substances, such as horn and sawdust, he obtained coal which yielded a bright flame in burning. In order to produce any effect of compression upon the carbonate of lime, 80 atmospheres was necessary, answering to about half a mile of sea in depth; but in order to execute the business well,

well, a force four or five times greater was required.

On the 27th of August last, a very interesting account of an aerostic voyage, performed by Messrs Guy Lusac, and Biot, was read before the National Institute. The chief object of this voyage was to examine whether the magnetic property experiences any appreciable diminution on removing from the earth. Saussure imagined that he found the magnetic property to decrease $\frac{1}{5}$ at the height of 3435 metres; while others have declared that it vanishes altogether on ascending in a balloon. In order to determine this important question they adopted the method of M. Borda, by making the needle oscillate, and estimating the force according to the number of oscillations. Ten experiments thus made, agreed in giving 35 seconds for the duration of five oscillations, at the height of 4000 toises and below it, while experiments made on the earth gave $35\frac{1}{4}$ seconds for the duration of five oscillations. From this result, M. Biot concludes "that "the magnetic property experiences "no appreciable diminution from the "surface of the earth to the height "of 4000 toises." They were not able to observe whether there was any variation in the inclination and declination of the needle; but they imagined that this variation, if there was any, was inconsiderable. These points, however, are to be determined by another voyage. M. Sachar-of lately found, that, at a considerable height above the earth, the north pole of the dipping needle was raised ten degrees. The same fact was ascertained by Mr Robertson when he ascended at Hamburgh on the 18th July 1803.

A new striking part for an eight-day clock has been invented by Mr John Prior of Nessfield, Yorkshire, who has been rewarded with thirty guineas by the Society of arts. It consists of a wheel and fly, with six turns of a spiral line cut upon the wheel for the purpose of counting the hours. The pins below this spiral elevate the hammer, and those above are for the use of the detent. This single wheel serves the purpose of count wheel, pin wheel, detent-wheel, and fly-wheel, and has six revolutions in striking 12 hours. For a drawing, and a fuller description of this invention we must refer the reader to the transactions of the Society of Arts for 1803, or to Nicholson's Journal, N° 34. p. 92.

It appears from the Gazette de France, 30th August, that M. Pauli, a native of Switzerland, and an excellent mechanic, has invented a machine for raising or lowering a balloon, for carrying it to the right or left, causing it to turn round at pleasure, and move several leagues an hour without the least wind. This discovery is said to be published, and trial of it to have been made at Sceaux, on 22d August, when M. Pauli, before a number of spectators, performed the aerial evolutions already mentioned.

A method of constructing large portfolios has long been a desideratum among artists and collectors of drawings. A very simple contrivance for this purpose was invented by the late James Malton, Esq. He made use of two straining frames made of deal; he covered them on both sides with canvas, papered them, and connected them with leather at the back, or with wooden backs, the sides being connected with hinges. In this manner a portfolio may be made capable of holding the largest cartoons, maps, and prints, and possessing another advantage, that of not bending when laid against the wall, like those which are made of pasteboard.

Murrayfield, Oct. 18. 1804. D. E.

A Suz-

A Survey *of the* British Empire *in* Europe *at the* Beginning *of the* 19*th* Century.

In a Series of Letters to a Youth. *(Continued from p. 662.)*

Letter VI.

MY DEAR FRIEND,

ACCORDING to promise, I now sit down to take a view of the commerce of the British Isles. This is very great, and, within the last century, has increased astonishingly, as appears from innumerable facts. In 1702, England had only 2281 trading vessels, which carried 261,223 tons: in 1740, the tonnage amounted to 476,941, and in 1792, she had no less than 10,423 trading vessels, carrying 1,168,468 tons. In the year 1692, Scotland had only 8618 tons of shipping; in 1740, 12,342; and in 1792 she had 2143 trading vessels, carrying 162,274 tons, and since that period I believe her trade has greatly increased. In 1695, the number of seamen, fishermen, and boatmen, belonging to Ireland, was only 4,424. I do not know what may be the present number, but, compared with that, it is certainly very great. I may, however, add in general, that in 1793 the trading vessels of the British dominions were no fewer than 16,329, which carried 1,564,524 tons, and were manned by 118,952 sailors. Their value is supposed to be about 12,000,000l. to which, if we add 4,000,000l. for the royal navy, the whole value of our shipping will be no less than 16,000,000l. sterling, though some of our late calculators have estimated it at more than double of that sum. The number of our ships built in the British empire in 1801, was 1065, which carried 122,593 tons.

You will, however, form a more precise idea of the extent of our commerce, and of the variations to which it is liable, from the following official accounts of the exports and imports,

Years.	Imports.	Exports. British Produce.	Exports. Foreign Produce.	Total Exports.	Total trade.
In 1697			About	3,600,000	
1781	12,724,000	7,633,000	3,709,000	11,342,000	24,066,000
1796	15,786,072	11,830,372	4,475,493	16,305,865	32,091,937
1790	19,130,885	14,921,084	5,199,037	20,120,121	49,251,006
1793	22,736,889	16,338,213	10,785,125	27,123,338	49,860,227
1800	30,570,604	24,304,283	18,847,735	43,152,018	73,722,622
1801	32,795,556	25,699,809	16,601,892	42,301,701	75,097,257
1802	31,442,318	26,993,129	19,127,833	46,120,962	77,563,280
1803	27,000,000	22,252,101	11,537,148	33,789,249	60,789,249

But it must be remarked, that these are the *official* accounts which are formed at rates established a century ago; and as almost every article is now much higher in value, the real amount must be much greater. Thus in 1802 the *real* value of British produce and manufactures exported to all parts of the world, instead of 26,993,129 l. was 48,500,683l.; and in 1803, instead of 22,252,141l. was 40,100,870l. nearly double the sum of the custom-house accounts.

With respect to Ireland, I shall only state, that in 1697 her exports amounted only to 252,262l. while in 1782 they had risen to 3,500,000l. the greater part of which was to Great

Great Britain; and as the unwarrantable restrictions on the Irish trade had been taken off only three years before, of which advantage she has greatly availed herself, both her exports and imports will amount to a much greater sum than that.

Such is a general view of our commerce, but you will expect me to be more particular.

The value of the goods imported by the East India Company amounts to about one fourth of our imports; their exports consist chiefly of woollen cloths, metals, naval and military stores, &c.

The Capital employed by the West India trade is estimated at seventy millions; the value of its exports from Great Britain and its dependencies, including the profit of freight on the several branches of supply, insurance, &c. at 3,800,000l.; and the imports into Great Britain and Ireland, and other parts the profits of which centre in Great Britain, at 7,200,000l.; the duties which they pay to Government, at 1,800,000l.; and the shipping they employ 150,000 tons

Of the American trade, which was formerly wholly engrossed by this country, and which since that period has greatly increased, we still retain about one half.

Our trade with the powers with which we are at present at war was formerly considerable. The following was the amount of our exports to them in 1792, previous to the breaking out of the last war:

	Brit. Man.	Foreign Merch.	Total.
To France L.	743,280	484,886	1,228,166
Flanders	38[illegible],287	949,806	1,031,093
Holland	788,207	731,242	1,516,449
		Total L.	3,775,708

With the other nations of Europe our commerce is still very considerable.

The following are the returns of the trade with several of them, in the year ending April 5. 1798.

EXPORTS.

	Imports	British Manuf.	Foreign Merch.	Total Exports.
Russia	1,565,118	178,323	273,804	452,107
Sweden	152,707	73,766	95,528	169,294
Denmark & Norway	94,821	218,891	492,191	711,082
Prussia -	220,827	58,336	163,326	221,662
Poland -	207,477			35,468
Germany -	2,658,011	1,621,142	6,393118	8,014,260

Let me now slightly notice our principal ports. At the head of these undoubtedly stands the metropolis. In the course of the last century, the trade of the river increased to such a degree as, at the end of it, to employ 6547 more vessels, which carried 1,327,763 tons, than at the beginning of it. At the close of the 18th century this extensive navigation employed no fewer than 13,144 ships and vessels in the foreign colonial and coasting trade (including their repeated voyages) besides 2288 lighters, barges, and punts, employed in the trade of the river Lea, and the upper and lower Thames. If to these are added the stationary craft, consisting of 3836 barges, lighters, and punts, used in the lading and discharging of vessels; together with 83 boats, sloops, cutters, and hoys,

3000

3000 watermen's wherries, 155 bum boats, and 194 peter boats; the aggregate number (exclusive of ships of war, transports, and navy, victualing and ordnance boys) will be found to amount to 22,500 trading ships and vessels, of various sizes and dimensions, either frequenting the river in the course of the year, or remaining stationary within the limits of the port. The total value of the exports and imports in the year 1798 was calculated at the immense sum of nearly eighty millions; the depredations upon which were, however, so great as to amount to half a million annually.

Next to the metropolis comes Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, Newcastle, &c. In 1800, there entered the latter harbour 1972 ships, and there cleared out of it 7840. I am sorry I can find no particular account of the extent of the others' trade.

The port of the Scotch capital is Leith, which is at the distance of about two miles from it, its trade is very considerable, and in the course of the last century had an astonishing increase. In 1692 the number of ships belonging to this port was only 29: in 1791 the ships belonging to it carried 130,000 tons, and in 1796, the number which entered it was 2076. Its trade is calculated at about a million sterling, and is so much on the encrease, that they are at present enlarging the harbour by an extensive and commodious wet dock.

Greenock, on our western coast, is likewise a place of great trade. In the year ending January 5th 1801, it alone employed 175,551 tons of shipping; and the revenue of the customs for the same period amounted to 180,342l. 1s. 5½d.

Perth, on the river Tay, also carries on a considerable trade. In 1791, the number of ships it employed in the coasting trade was 887. The harbour of Dundee, on the same river, is capable of containing 300 vessels. In 1792 there were 116 belonging to it, which employed 698 men, and measured 8550½ tons.

Proceeding northward you come to Aberdeen, which, it is said, exports to the amount of 183,000l. annually; and beyond that city is Peterhead, the exports of which are about 100,000l. Such are the principal ports in Scotland.

In Ireland, Cork stands at the head of their harbours; and indeed it is perhaps one of the finest in the world. The other principal ports of that kingdom are Waterford, Limeric, Dublin, Belfast, &c each of which carries on very extensive dealings, but the extent of them I cannot discover.

Before concluding this account of our commerce, I must take some notice of our inland trade. This is chiefly carried on by means of waggons, or canals. You daily see immense waggons travelling with goods, from one town to another, particularly among our southern neighbours. Indeed till within fifty years, this, or by means of horses, was the only mode of inland trade; but we have now water carriage, by means of numerous canals throughout the country, particularly in England. The earliest inland navigation that can be authenticated, is the Sankey canal, leading from the coal-pits at St Helens in Lancashire, to the river, merely in order to convey fuel to Liverpool. Its length is 12 miles, with a fall of 90 feet. The act of Parliament for it passed so late as 1755.

But it is to the late Duke of Bridgewater, that this country is principally indebted for the great advantages it derives from inland navigation; and his spirit and opulence were happily seconded by the efforts of a man of extraordinary mechanical powers, named Brindley. The first act for these great designs was obtained in 1758. The first canal extends

extends from Worsley mill, about seven miles from Manchester, and reaches that town by a course of nine miles, a circuit of two miles being necessary for the sake of the level. In this short space almost every difficulty occurred that can arise in schemes of this nature, but all obstacles were removed by the talents of Brindley. There are subterraneous passages for coal in the mountain of near a mile in length, sometimes cut through the solid rock, and occasionally arched over with brick, with air funnels to the top of the hill, some of them thirty-seven yards perpendicular. This beautiful canal is thrown over the river Irwell, by an arch of 39 feet in height, under which barges pass without lowering their masts. The Duke of Bridgewater soon after extended a canal of 29 miles in length, from Longford bridge in Lancashire, to Hempstone's in Cheshire.

Besides these, the most important canals that have been executed are the following: the Lancashire canal, extending from Kendal, in Westmoreland by Lancaster, to West Houghton in Lancashire, a space of about 74 miles.

The Canal from Leeds to Liverpool, directed in a northerly course by Skipton, winds through an extent of about 117 miles, and from this canal a branch also extends to Manchester.

From Halifax to Manchester is another considerable canal, commonly called that of Rochdale; it is in length 31¼ miles.

Another canal extends from Manchester to Wakefield; and another, called the Peak Forest canal, from the former south-east about 15 miles.

The Chesterfield Canal extends from that town, in the county of Derby, to the Trent at Stockwith, a course of about 44½ miles.

In Lincolnshire, one canal extends from Lincoln to the Trent, and another from Horncastle to Sleaford. Grantham canal reaches from that town to the river Trent, a course of 30 miles.

The grand design of Brindley was to join by inland navigation the four great ports of the nation, London, Bristol, Liverpool, and Hull. Liverpool is accordingly connected with Hull, by a canal from that long navigable river the Trent, and proceeding north to the Mersey. The canal which joins these two rivers is styled the Grand Trunk, and was begun and completed under the direction of that great engineer, in the course of 11 years. The length is 99 miles. From this Grand Trunk five or six branches extend in various directions; among which is that to the river Severn, near Bewdley, which connects the port of Bristol with that of Liverpool and Hull. The length is 46 miles.

From the city of Chester one canal extends to the Mersey, and another to Nantwich; another proceeds south to Shrewsbury, uniting the Mersey and the Severn with north-west and south-east branches of considerable length.

From Coventry, in the centre of the kingdom, canals extend to the Grand Trunk, to Ashbyde-la-Zouch, & to the Braunston, or Grand Junction Canal.

What is called the Staffordshire Canal extends from the Grand Trunk to the river Severn, and is met by the Kingston Canal, which reaches to Kingston in Herefordshire, so as almost to join the rivers Trent and Wye. Several inland navigations pass by Birmingham. The Union Canal completes a course of 44 miles from Leicester to Northampton, from whence the river Nen is navigable to the Sea. Another canal extends from Gloucester to Hereford; and the Severn is not only joined with the Trent and Humber by various courses of navigation, but is united with the Thames by a canal extending by Stroud to Lechlade.

lade, a course of near 40 miles. Other canals branch out from the Thames in various directions: that of Oxford extends to the Grand Trunk, or rather joins the Coventry Canal, after a course of 92 miles.

The Braunston, or Grand Junction Canal, reaches from Brentford on the Thames and joins the Oxford Canal at Braunston, in Northamptonshire, after a course of 90 miles. It is joined by the Grand Junction Canal, because it may be said to unite the numerous courses that pervade the central counties with the capital of the kingdom.

Such are the Canals of England. Those of this country are comparatively few in number and of small extent. The Great Canal which connects the Forth and the Clyde together is the principal one; though thought of so early as the reign of Charles II., it was not begun till 1768, nor finished till 1790. It is 35 miles in length, rises and falls about 160 feet by means of 39 locks. In its course it passes over rocks, precipices, and quicksands: it crosses many rivulets, as well as two considerable rivers, the Kelvin and the Luggie, over which are large aqueduct bridges; that over the former being 420 feet long and 65 feet high. To supply it with water was of itself a laborious work. For this purpose there is one reservoir of 50 acres 22 feet deep, and another of 70 acres 24 feet deep. Vessels of 19 feet beam, 8 feet of water, and not exceeding 73 in keel, pass with the greatest ease. The shares of the company are now selling at 25 per cent. above par. Near its union with the Clyde it is joined by the Monkland canal, which was formed for conveying coals from that place, and is I believe 7 or 8 miles in length. Besides these there is a small canal near Kelso, and another near Aberdeen; and at present they are engaged in forming one more extensive than either of the above called the Great Caledonian Canal, to extend from the Murray Frith to the Frith of Mull, a course of between 60 and 70 miles, the one half of which is already navigable by means of the lakes, particularly Loch Ness.

In Ireland too there are several canals. One extends from Newry, in the county of Down, to the South Ban, and so to Loch Neagh. From this lake to Belfast another has been lately cut at the expence of the Marquis of Belfast; and the river Lagan, which separates Down from county of Antrim, is also made navigable. But the principal canal in Ireland is that which connects the river Liffey, on which Dublin is built, with the Shannon, on the west side of the kingdom.

These I believe are the principal canals in the British dominions, and have been of immense service to our inland commerce; others of great importance have been projected, and are at this moment executing, especially in England.

Besides this legal commerce, there is an immense contraband trade carried on throughout the whole kingdom, chiefly in consequence of the very high duties on goods. In it are employed ships from 30 to 300 tons, some of which carry from 6 to 24 guns, and which are sometimes so bold as to engage a king's ship, and even take her while the others in the mean time sheer off. These carry on a trade for this kingdom with the different countries of the world; they have signals agreed upon with their friends on shore, to whom they deliver their goods in the darkness of the night, and they even have travellers who go up and down the country taking orders for their goods.

Before leaving this subject I must also take notice of the means which are using for the farther improvement of our agriculture, fisheries, manufactures, and commerce. With this view there are numerous and large

large societies formed over the whole kingdom. Had I time I would dwell on them with pleasure, but I shall do little more than mention the names of some of the principal. The society instituted in London for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, who have already with this view expended nearly 50,000l.; the Board of Agriculture, instituted about ten or twelve years ago; the Board of Trustees for overseeing the fisheries and manufactures, &c. of Scotland, who dispose about 4000l. annually for these purposes; the Highland Society of Scotland, &c. Besides these there are numerous local societies. Many of the counties of England have societies who give premiums for improvements in agriculture. Many of the nobility and gentry have shewn a very patriotic spirit for the improvement of their native country, in the various branches At the head of these we may justly rank the late Duke of Bedford.

I shall now conclude, my dear friend, by giving you some general view of the national wealth and our annual income and expenditure. In the year 1664, Sir W. Petty estimated the national wealth of England and Wales, namely, the value of land, houses, shipping, cattle, coinage, wares, plate, furniture, &c. at 250,000,000l. Now, as since that time the value of money has risen in the proportion of about five to fourteen, the total wealth of England and Wales in 1664 would have amounted to 700,000,000l according to the present value of money. In 1800, Mr Grellier calculates the national wealth of Great Britain, at 1,298,607,000l.; so that since 1664 there has been on an average an annual addition of no less than about four millions sterling to the national stock.

The particulars of Mr Grellier's estimation, some of which I have already had occasion to notice, are as follows:

Value of Land,	L. 924,000,000
Houses, -	170,000,000
Cattle & farming stock,	102,000,000
Shipping, -	16,000,000
Coinage, -	25,000,080
Goods in merchants hands,	35,381,000
Furniture, apparel, &c.	26,026,000
Total	L1,298,607,000

At the above period, Sir William Petty estimated the *annual income* of England, arising from rents of houses, land, the profits of labour, trade &c. at 42,000,000l. Mr G. King estimated it at 43,500,000l. Dr Davenant in 1701 supposes it to be 49,000,000l. These accounts are exclusive of Scotland; but after making a sufficient addition on this account, it will appear that since these periods there has been a considerable increase of the annual income. Sir John Sinclair in 1783 observed that the income of the country was commonly estimated at 100,000,000l. which he was inclined to think rather a low estimation; and there can be little doubt that of late years our profits have considerably increased. It is indeed difficult to particularize the profits of the different branches of the national income, the following statement is however presumed not to be very inaccurate:

From rent of lands, - - -	L33,000,000
Ditto of houses, - - -	8,500,000
Profits of farming, - - -	6,120,000
Income of labourers in agriculture -	15,000,000
Profits of mines, collieries, and inland navigation,	2,000,000
Profits of merchant shipping and small craft,	1,000,000
Carry forward,	L.65,620,000

Income

Brought forward,	L.65,620,000
Income of Stockholders,	15,500,000
From mortgages and other money lent on private security,	3,000,000
Profits of foreign trade,	11,500,000
Ditto of manufactures,	14,100,000
Pay of the army, navy, and seamen in merchant service,	4,500,000
Income of the clergy of all descriptions,	2,200,000
Ditto of the judges, and all subordinate officers of the law,	1,800,000
Professors, tutors, schoolmasters, &c.	600,000
Retail trade,	8,000,000
Various other professions and employments,	2,000,000
Male and female servants,	2,000,000
Total	L.130,570,000

Such is the amount of our annual income, as calculated by Mr Grellier. Let us now in the same way attend to the annual expenditure of Great Britain. Sir W. Petty reckoned the average expence of men, women, and children in England at 6l. 13s. 4d. per annum, for food, clothing, housing, and all other necessaries. Dr Davenant took the average at 7l. which, according to the difference in the value of money at the beginning of the century, and at this time, is equal to upwards of 16l. Mr Jonas Hanway, about thirty years ago, estimated the expence of the subsistence of the people of England and Wales at 63,037,500l. but this amount, which on an average is less than sixpence a day for each, must be too low at present, and the following estimate will probably approach nearer to the truth:

No. of People.	Per day.	Per annum.	Total amount.
500,000	18d.	L. 27 7 6	L. 13,687,500
750,000	12d.	18 5 0	13,687,500
1,000,000	9d.	13 13 9	13,687,500
3,000,000	6d.	9 2 6	27,375,000
1,750,000	2d.	3 0 10	5,322,916
7,000,000 *.			L. 73,760,416

But to the expences of living must be added those of house-rent, cloathing, and superfluous expences. The first of these articles has been stated at 8,500,000l. and allowing for the rents of shops, warehouses, and other buildings appropriated wholly to trade, it may be taken at 7,000,000l.

The expence of cloathing, including every article of dress, or personal decoration, will on a very moderate calculation amount to at least twenty-five millions, namely:

No. of People.		Per annum	Total amount.
200,000	at	L. 30	6,000,000
300,000	at	15	4,500,000
700,000	at	8	5,600,000
1,000,000	at	4	4,000,000
1,500,000	at	2	3,000,000
2,000,000	at	1	2,000,000
1,300,000	at	0	
7,000,000			L. 25,100,000

With respect to superfluous expences, when the sums spent by the nobility and fashionable people, in plays,

* This estimation was formed before the population act had taken full effect: so that as the population is actually greater than Mr Grellier supposed, the expenditure is probably greater than here stated.

plays, operas, concerts, routs, gambling, horses, carriages, and other amusements and luxuries, is considered, it certainly will not be thought improbable, that, including what is spent by others on objects more rational, though not absolutely requisite, there are half a million of persons who, one with another, spend 40l. per annum in unnecessary expences, making in all 20,000,000l; so that the total annual expenditure will stand thus:

For subsistence,	L. 73,760,000
House rent, -	7,000,000
Cloathing, -	25,100,000
Miscellaneous expences,	20,000,000
	L. 125,860,000

The difference between this expenditure and the general income shews the annual gain of the country; or the sum applicable to the extension of commerce, the reservation of a greater quantity of foreign articles, the increase of shipping and buildings, agricultural or mechanical improvements, or other augmentations of the general stock.

It must, however, be recollected, that these can be no more than approximations to the truth. In general, however, they are certainly rather below than above it. Others have given much higher estimates than those of Mr Grellier. Thus the Rev. H. Becke supposes the real value of the whole capital to be 2,300,000,000l. and the annual income at 218,000,000l. These, however, I should suspect to be by much too high.

But I am afraid you will now be out of all patience, and therefore willingly conclude. I am, &c.

Edinburgh. *W. B.*

Some information respecting *the* Ettrick Shepherd.

To the Editor.

SIR,

ALTHOUGH it is but of late years that I became acquainted with the Ettrick Shepherd, yet I have had the pleasure of being several times in his company, and have heard, from his own mouth, that he was bred a shepherd from his childhood; and that, owing to the simplicity of his nature and needy circumstances, he was often very harshly used: if I remember right, he was only one half year at school in his infancy, and having few opportunities made little progress until near 20 years of age: he now appears bordering on 30, and is the most cheerful inoffensive man living.

As to other kinds of his poetry I know not, but his songs are, in this country, admired much beyond all others; that of *Donald Macdonald*, which he wrote last year, hath had an unexampled circulation through all ranks in the nation. He hath lately, by concurring circumstances, which he neither could foresee nor prevent, been obliged to leave those banks and streams, by his verses rendered immortal, and is perhaps doomed to waste a valuable life in the most abject servility, which will be a never-ending reproach on the proprietors and wealthy inhabitants of Ettrick forest.

If none of his more intimate friends should send a more circumstantial account of him, you may insert this in answer to Mr Welch.

September 17th 1804. *A. B. E.*

On the PERMANENCY *of the* CAUSES *which retard the* PROGRESS *of* TRUTH.

Omnia subsident meliori pervia causæ. CLAUDIAN.

THAT truth is omnipotent is an opinion that flatters the pride of intellect, and warms the breast of benevolence. It is no wonder, therefore, that its advocates have always maintained and supported it with so much zeal and enthusiasm, as to have mistaken declamation for argument, and to have formed a race of men such as imagination paints, not such as experience and observation hold forth to our view.

That the arguments in favour of truth are much more clear and strong than those on which error rests, that the understanding must necessarily assent to what is supported by the strongest arguments, are propositions, in which the advocates for this opinion triumph, and from which they conclude, that the dominion of error must gradually yield to the superior power of truth. It is unfortunate that a question, the right determination of which is of so much consequence to mankind, should have been agitated on both sides with so much partiality, and discussed in such a loose and inconclusive manner. Neither those who oppose, nor those who maintain the position, seem to have taken that minute and comprehensive view of it, from which they could exactly determine its boundaries and relations, nor to have brought it to the test of repeatedly and carefully compared experience, and philosophical deduction.

In the discussion of this question, we should begin with laying down the most simple and accurately-defined positions, and if necessary, support and elucidate each by those facts which are within the reach, and agreeable to the observation of all; our propositions should gradually become more comprehensive, but each should be strictly referable to the fundamental position, and, if possible, further supported by additional facts. In a question such as this, whenever we neglect to simplify our first positions, or overlook or contradict facts, we either perplex or weaken our cause.

It is certain and allowed by all, that truth has made some progress in the world; that the opinions entertained by mankind now, are not only less false and absurd, but more the result of judgment and investigation than they were some centuries ago. To say that truth is superior in argument to error, is weakening a cause by the enunciation of an identical proposition, and neither explains satisfactorily why truth has advanced, nor affords us sufficient ground of itself to infer that it will continue to advance, and ultimately to eradicate error. Opinions undoubtedly true have been maintained with all the force that they could derive from the assistance of facts and argument, and yet have failed to make any impression: and in most cases, where truth has been admitted and established, other causes may be discovered besides the superior cogency and clearness of her proofs.

The causes which retard, and consequently those which accelerate the progress of truth, seem all to depend on the persons to whom the truth is offered, on those who are its advocates, and on that part of society who, without actually maintaining by argument any opinion, are interested in preventing or assisting its establishment.

Before any rational conjecture can be formed respecting the probable reception of any opinion, which

is founded on truth, and capable of clear demonstration, an inquiry must be made respecting the minds and characters of those to whom it is to be presented. This is too frequently neglected or despised: the consequence is fatal, but natural; the philosopher considers it as almost impossible, that those arguments which are the result of patient and laborious investigation, joined to that acuteness which nothing escapes, that profoundness to which nothing is hidden or obscure, and that comprehensiveness which grasps the whole, can fail to convince, if they be offered in language capable of preserving and communicating all their strength and clearness. But he forgets to calculate on many things: he supposes that his neighbour will view the question as of the same importance as himself: if he do not, it is evident that the arguments will neither convince, nor be understood, because they are not attended to: he forgets that objections may have been overlooked by him from inattention, or neglected as trivial, which in the opinion of his neighbour are insuperable and fatal: in calculating the force necessary to produce a change of opion, he has taken into consideration only the obstacles which opposed this change in himself; he has not calculated on errors which may exist in his neighbour, either different from his in their nature, or greater in their inveteracy and power. The truth has produced conviction in him, not merely because its arguments appeared conclusive, but because he saw its importance or utility: But this truth, as soon as ever it is declared to his neighbour, before he has advanced a single argument, may excite so strong a prejudice, as to render him unwilling or incapable to hear what may be adduced in its favour. The philosopher generally supports the truth of an opinion, before he endeavours to convince his audience of its utility: the generality of mankind are induced to admit the truth, first by being convinced that it is important and useful. If the opinion which the philosopher maintains be considered as dangerous, prejudice will prevent attention or discussion; if it be regarded as unimportant, it will be heard with indifference, and soon forgotten.

Hence we may deduce an inference, which will enable us to determine, whether the obstacles to the progress of truth, from the minds of those to whom it is addressed, are permanent and insurmountable: and hence also we may rest the position, that truth will ultimately prevail, on a more solid foundation.

The inference to be drawn from the preceding observations, and which indeed the feelings and experience of every man must confirm, is, that happiness is that alone which can excite action,—that no object will be desired, no conduct be pursued, with which in the mind of the individual there is not associated more pleasure than pain. It is impossible for man to choose misery; it is needless and absurd to ask why? When he says that he performs a certain action, because he expects from it more happiness than from the opposite, he has given the ultimate cause of his acting in that manner. But if the object be desirable, and therefore necessarily pursued, the means which appear to lead most certainly to that end, will also be desirable, and consequently be adopted.

But what is truth? *the conformity of our opinions to real existence*: it may therefore regard what is connected with our happiness necessarily, though mediately, and what therefore all will be anxious to know; or what is connected with our happiness immediately, but only in some circumstances, and which therefore is of secondary importance, and on many will have little influence; or,

in the last place, what is entirely unconnected with our happiness.

Whether the generality of mankind will ever be capable of those sublime and enlightened acts of virtue, which have astonished and produced lasting benefits in distant ages and countries, or whether such acts will be necessary when mankind are less the slaves of ignorance and passion, it is certain that at present their happiness must arise from less refined and comprehensive knowledge, and actions more humble in their virtue, but more frequent in their occurrence. It would be useless, if not dangerous, to attempt to make that man a disinterested patriot, who neglected the duties he owed to his family or his neighbours: or to convince *him* that he ought to sacrifice his own present advantage on the altar of Public Liberty, who was continually making all within his power the slaves of his caprice, or his anger, or the victims of his extravagance and vice.

Those truths, therefore, which point out that happiness which all may obtain, and which is constantly within their reach, will interest all in the highest degree. If a man have given himself up to any vice, it is evident that he is interested about that kind of happiness which he supposes the vice capable and likely to afford him: this interest will lead him to attend to any arguments that may be adduced; and he, who can point out not only that his present conduct is prejudicial and destructive to the object of his wishes, but that he will gain it more effectually and permanently by an opposite conduct, has touched the spring of action in man, which, if he continue to apply to it the requisite skill and force, will necessarily produce a change of conduct.

It is absurd to say that conviction may be full, clear, and permanent; that it may be continued so long as to associate misery with that conduct with which happiness had formerly been associated, and to connect the opposite mode of conduct impressively in his mind with the idea of good, and yet that the person may still continue the slave of vice: it is in fact to say that man can *will* to be miserable.

It is allowed that many ineffectual attempts have been made to reform the vicious by the force of argument; that these attempts were unsuccessful must have arisen from the want of zeal, perseverance or knowledge, in those who made them. So far as want of success depended on them, it will be considered hereafter: that, if they had been properly qualified, success must have followed, we shall now attempt to shew.

If it be granted that no man can desire misery, and that the facts and arguments are striking, numerous, and plain, by which it may be proved that those duties which lie within the power of the generality of mankind, if they be discharged with sincerity, knowledge, and constancy, are the surest means of happiness, whence can there arise any obstacle to reformation, or the reception of truth, in the mind or character of him whom we are endeavouring to instruct?

In capacity cannot be urged, for the meanest talents will enable him to understand the arguments; the most confined experience and superficial observation will oblige him to acknowlege the truth and suitableness of the facts; we are now speaking of the first class of truths, of those which relate to all, which are level to all, which interest all. A capacity, one degree above idiotism, is sufficient to understand those arguments by which the obligation of the duties of life may be proved.

It cannot be that he feels no interest; or if this be the case, the person who undertakes to communicate the truth must be very deficient, and the

the fault must be entirely laid on him. He must feel interested about his own happiness: that he does not feel interested when his neighbour tells him how he may ensure or encrease that happiness, must arise from his doubting the sincerity or knowledge of his neighbour, or because he is deficient in that enthusiasm of benevolence which inspires the interest he feels.

Prejudice and error are obstacles; but they are surmountable; what are they, but the belief of something which is not agreeable to fact, or a belief of what is really true, without sufficient evidence? They may therefore be destroyed; facts can be brought against them; and if the facts be clear, to the point, and frequently and strongly urged, they must make an impression; these obstacles must give way before them.

But it may be said, that prejudice is so strong, and habits of belief and conduct have so embodied themselves with the mind and character, that the person either will feel no inclination, or possess no ability to destroy them; but if they are strong, that which is opposed to them is also strong. It is not contended, that prejudice and habit will be mouldered into dust by the touch of truth; the associations, on which the influence of the prejudices and habits depend, must be destroyed; but the destruction must be gradual: it will necessarily be slow; every fact presented to the mind, every observation made, every consequence of an action experienced, which illustrates that fact, weakens the bond of association. If the advocate of truth be remiss or inconstant, the associations will resume their former closeness: but if he have skill to direct his efforts, and zeal and perseverance to continue them, every obstacle must give way: opposite associations will be formed, the former prejudices and habits will be replaced by opinions the result of conviction and experience, and by actions productive of real and lasting good.

We may conclude, therefore, that those obstacles in the mind and character of the person himself, which retard the progress of those truths, which are most simple in their nature, most clear and accessible from their arguments, and most generally useful, though great, are not insurmountable: that if proper regard be paid to the strength they have gained from time to time, and the attack be made on them with proportionate force, skill, and perseverance, they must ultimately fall.

It may reasonably be expected, that the generality of mankind have capacity, and feel inclination, to examine and receive those truths, on which depend their comforts, and the virtues which they are constantly called upon to exercise. The interest of these truths is strong and constantly acting, their evidence is plain yet powerful.

But there are other truths, which are applicable only to higher and rarer virtues; or conversant about circumstances which do not touch upon the happiness of the mass of mankind. These truths of course must excite less interest, and it will be found that in general the investigation, discovery, and practical efficacy of them, require more time, ability, and strength of mind, than can at any time be expected from the generality of men. It is fortunate, therefore, that the virtues which they produce are seldom requisite, and the happiness dependent on them rather exquisite than frequent, rather what we sometimes desire than always need. It is much more easy to prove, that a man ensures, and purifies, and renders less dependent his individual good, by the performance of those duties which the happiness of his family and neighbours requires, than to make him feel interested about the

the good of his country or the human race; and to prove that they also have claims to which his present lower good ought to be given up, in order that by this sacrifice he might ensure a greater portion of individual happiness. Before such truths can be received with cheerfulness and pleasure, before they can be admitted in all their purity, comprehensiveness, and force; before they can produce a ready, disinterested, and constant obedience, the mind must have made great advances: the range of intellect must take in every thing near and every thing distant; each link of the chain which connects the happiness of the community with the happiness of the individual must be seen, its strength must be felt: its connection must be so intimate, its conducting power so perfect, that whatever touches the remotest part, shall affect the link by which the individual feels himself immediately bound.

Here then we discover one class of truths, which most probably will be always confined to a few.

The happiness resulting from truth, is either dependent on its connection with human conduct, or results from its investigation and discovery alone. No doubt can be entertained that the mathematician receives exquisite pleasure from the investigation and solution of a problem, independently of any idea of its application, and even when he is convinced that it is of no practical utility. This pleasure requires great zeal, refined and extensive knowledge, and an abstraction from the cares and the pleasures of life, such as the multitude cannot acquire, and such as they should not attempt.

To this class of truths, and to the sublime and intellectual pleasure which they produce, the mass of mankind must be always in a great degree strangers: when they are less weighed down with perpetual labour and the dread of poverty, when the general knowledge of more plain and important truths shall have given them more time for mental cultivation, and more strength and capacity of intellect; some even of this class will lie within their grasp, and become the objects of their interest and the sources of their pleasure.

The third kind of truths are those which are of no real importance or utility; which can neither be applied nor benefit the mind they occupy: they certainly interest and give pleasure, otherwise they would not be pursued: but they darken, and perplex, and weaken the human intellect: they not only draw it off from subjects of real importance, but by destroying that mark which alone stamps value on truth, they lead mankind to confound what is useful with what is trivial or dangerous. The Rabbins and the schoolmen investigated subjects, and gave opinions, which certainly were either true or false; but which were of no practical application; which increased the obscurity and weakness of the intellect that started them, and which had a great tendency, either to make men indifferent about the truth, or to regard all truths as of equal importance and obligation.

It is therefore a matter of no importance whether these truths be discoverable or not, or whether, if discoverable, they will excite the interest and produce the conviction of mankind: or rather, they should be carefully separated from the others, in order that no time might be wasted, and no ability misapplied; and in order that the true criterion of the importance of truth might be more strongly marked, and more generally understood. Truth will be pursued with more ardour, benevolence, discrimination, and success, when it is pursued merely because it points the way to virtue and happiness; whenever the paths, which lead to each, cease to be the same, and deviate in

the

the smallest degree, we should leave truth as of no importance, and pursue virtue as the only good.

We have now considered the subject of this essay, so far as it regards those to whom truth is addressed: and have endeavoured to show, that where truth is interesting and important, it is there level to the capacity of mankind in general, and so powerful as to destroy every obstacle: that wherever its importance becomes less general or great, it requires greater talents and strength of mind: that where the pleasure it affords is confined to the individual, and purely intellectual, it cannot be expected to be the object of general interest or level to common capacity; that such truth, therefore, though it may extend, cannot universally prevail; and that a third class of truths injure the intellect, and contribute to perpetuate and extend the reign of error. The friend of truth, therefore, if he wish to be successful and useful, will be contented with instructing the mass of mankind in the first class of truths; will confine the second to those few whose talents are eminent, and enable them to take comprehensive and influencing views; and the third he will carefully avoid, as profiting nothing.

(To be concluded in our next.)

Remarks *on the* Late Corn Bill.

To the Editor.

SIR,

THE passing of the late corn bill into a law has caused less discussion, and created less opposition, than we should naturally have expected. It would, I imagine, be difficult to account for this silent and acquiescing disposition at present, respecting a subject which, half a century ago, would have been productive of considerable alarm, and not improbably of serious opposition. It is not my present intention to investigate the change in the feelings and sentiments of the nation on this subject; of this, at least, I am convinced, that it is not a general persuasion that the late regulations respecting corn will be beneficial to the community at large, or even that they were necessary to the proper and just interest of the farmer, which has prevented the public discussion and opposition of the bill. It is my present intention simply, shortly, and I trust impartially, to state the arguments alledged in support of the bill, and to examine into their validity and justice.

It is alledged that, at the average price of grain for these last twenty years, it is impossible for the farmer to pay his rent, and the expences attending the cultivation of his farm, and at the same time to have such a net surplus as will enable him to live as men in his situation and of his rank ought to live; that therefore, unless the net surplus of the farmer be increased, it cannot be expected that any men, who can make a greater profit of their capital by employing it in other channels, will engage in agriculture. We shall not at present enquire how much a farmer would seek to enable him to live as he conceives he ought to do, nor why he thinks that his profits now should enable him to live so much better than his father 50 or 60 years ago did, while the mode of living of many other tradesmen continues nearly the same!—we shall, without any inquiry, grant him, that, according to the average price of grain for the last twenty years, his net profits are not adequate to the expences of his

his situation and rank in life: it next remains to be investigated, how it comes to pass that his net profits are so low. It cannot be solely, or principally, because the expence of cultivating his ground is so much encreased; because if we compare the price of labour with the price of corn as they are now, and as they were 50 or 60 years ago, and if we further remember the improvements in agriculture since that period, which render the same labour more effectual and productive, we shall find that the farmer at present pays little more than he did 50 or 60 years since for the same efficient labour: he may pay really more for the day's work of a man, but a day's work at present, from improvements in agriculture, is of more service than it was half a century since. In comparing the price of labour with the produce of agriculture, as they are now, and as they were 50 or 60 years since, we are to take into our account, not merely corn, (which has not risen much since that period,) but also cattle, which are nearly doubled in price. We are also to consider, that now an acre produces, by superior cultivation (not by greater expence, so much as by the proper direction of the same expence) at least $\frac{1}{4}$ more than it did 50 or 60 years since. So that, even allowing that the real price of labour has risen, or in other words, that the farmer must sell a greater quantity of his corn at the same price he did formerly, in order to pay his servant; still, as from his encreased produce he has more, even after the deduction for the increase of his servant's wages, to bring to market, we cannot attribute to the increased price of labour the fact alledged and granted, that the net profits of the farmer are not sufficient.

It does not require much penetration, nor observation, to find out the true cause why the farmer's profits are so small;—the enormous rise in the rent of lands stares us in the face in every quarter. If the farmer, instead of giving a third of the gross produce of his land to his landlord, agrees by his lease to give him a half, it is evident that he must either be content with less net profit, or sell his grain at a higher price. As we cannot suppose that any man would prefer the former, where he could effect the latter, and as it is the landlord's interest to keep his tenant able and disposed to pay the high rent; no other method remains, but to make the public pay part of the rack-rent, and thus enable the farmer to live, even when his rents are high, as well as when they were low, and at the same time pay his landlord. The consequence that will probably result from making the public pay part of the rent, is very obvious:—the farmer, when his lease is out, will not hesitate about any rise of rents, since he is convinced that the landed gentlemen, in order to secure their high rents, will again step forward and secure it and their tenants from any diminution in their profits, by another corn bill. Can we imagine, that a farmer would hesitate to give L. 6 an acre for land, instead of L. 3, if he could be assured that every part of the produce of his farm could bring double price? In the same manner, can we be surprised, that a farmer should, without scruple or hesitation, give a very great increase of rent, when he is convinced that his landlord, in order to secure that encreased rent, will use his interest to raise the produce of land in proportion? It is well known what bad effects were produced by the dear years: farmers, imagining that they were to continue, or at least that the corn would always keep above its former average price, did not hesitate to give nearly double their former rents: but this evil necessarily remedied itself; whereas an artificial forced high price, occasioned by the joint

interest

interest of landlord and tenant, cannot fall, at least very much, or for any long continuance of time: and we may rest assured, that land, which the real scarcity and unforced high price had nearly doubled in rent, would have fallen nearly to its former rent, if artificial means had not been used to keep it up.

It must be allowed, that the remedy for the present evil of high rents is necessarily harsh and disagreeable; it must either be at the expence of the landlords and tenants, or at the expence of the nation at large;—no doubt can be entertained, that if corn were left to find its own price, most of the farmers, who have taken high-rented farms, would either be obliged to retrench their expenditure very much, or would become unable to pay their rents; or probably, in many instances, both circumstances would occur. This would, no doubt, be very disagreeable, and productive of much confusion and misery; but the effects would be temporary, and a caution would be deeply and permanently impressed on the minds of both landlords and tenants. The mode actually adopted makes all the nation sufferers, and at the same time has no tendency to remove, but rather a manifest and necessary tendency to increase the evil, while its real nature is concealed, from its effects being divided among so many. It is absurd and foolish to expect to cure a wound without pain; it is absurd and foolish to expect to cure the enormous and growing evil of rack-rents, without inconvenience, nay misery, to individuals; but it is still more desperately and blindly absurd to nourish a disorder, and to spread it over the whole body, in the hopes that its effects will be less fatal and less felt: it is equally so to expose the community at large to the mischievous consequences which must sooner or latter result from overstrained rents. This mode of proceeding, if carried still further, must either be ineffectual or ruinous: if labour and every commodity rise in proportion to grain, the rise in the latter will be only nominal, and consequently the farmer will be no better able to pay his rack-rent; if labour and other commodities do not rise, the labourer will not be able, by his day's labour, to command sufficient to enable him to work the next day; and the dealers in other commodities will find their respective trades nearly destroyed, as each will be obliged to give a much larger proportion than usual for the necessaries of life.

The farmer, no doubt, is placed in a different situation from the dealers in other commodities: as *every body* must have provisions, it is plain that, in a cheap year, *no greater number* will buy than in a dear year; and very few will buy more, since in the dearest year, nearly a sufficiency is had by all, and in a cheap year, tho' a few may purchase more grain, yet most people, instead of purchasing more, lay out their money on other objects: hence, in a plentiful year of corn, it falls more than other articles (shoes for instance) do, when they are plentiful; because when shoes are plentiful, many who did not wear them before, wear them now. But, for the same reason, a scarce year of corn must raise the price of it in a greater proportion than an equally-scarce supply of shoes would do: many people can do without shoes altogether, many with fewer pair in the same time; but all must have some corn, and most as much as ever they had. However, on the whole, this peculiarity in the principle, which regulates the price of corn in very cheap or very dear years, if the one be balanced against the other, renders the average price of this article nearly as stationary as that of any other dealer, and therefore on this ground there seems no reason that the legislature should interfere.

It

It has been said, that unless the corn bill had passed, the farmer would have no encouragement to grow grain, and would throw his land into pasture; but this measure would soon remedy itself: there is a demand for only a certain quantity of butcher meat; and if more were reared, the price would fall, and the farmer would again plough his lands;—2. Other nations would undersell us in grain, and the farmer would either find no market, or be obliged to sell below what he could afford.—If other nations can raise grain, and sell it cheaper to us than we can, then let us direct our labour to some other object, that will pay better, and which they will take in exchange for grain; for nothing can be plainer, than that every article should be bought where it can be had cheapest: but before we determine on this, let us inquire, whether the underselling of us by other nations is not *entirely* owing to the high rent of lands, and not to the high price of labour, or the diminished value of money?—I trust these remarks will at least draw the attention of your readers to this important subject, and I hope to see it further discussed in your Magazine.

X. Z.

The PHILOSOPHICAL *and* LITERARY INQUIRER.

No. I.

THE views of men who devote themselves to the pursuit of learning are various, according to their peculiar bent of mind, or condition in life. True genius is the lot of a few, though many have talents, which seem nearly allied to it and entitle them to move in a sphere above the great bulk of mankind. Hence it sometimes happens, that persons, even of superior understanding, mistake the nature of their talents, and, led away by ardent feelings, deviate into paths which they were never destined to tread, with honour to themselves or with advantage to the community. In our own country, and at a period when the means of acquiring knowledge are no longer confined to a few, we frequently observe, amongst men of reading and reflection, a roving disposition, productive of no solid improvement in any one art or science, but of superficial and indistinct notions concerning many. Under the delusive title of general learning, the poverty of our attainments may be concealed from the view of ignorant astonishment: the more penetrating eye discovers at first glance the extreme vanity of pretensions supported by every mean artifice of ostentation. To a certain extent, indeed, this ardor for universal knowledge ought to be encouraged. There is no one branch of human learning which is wholly unconnected with any other; but as the desire and abilities of most men will not admit of great and comprehensive schemes of improvement, they must confine their wishes to objects more suitable to their faculties, and, if accomplished, more valuable to society, than presumptuous and abortive undertakings. The progress of useful information amongst mankind will be most rapidly and effectually advanced, if each be limited to some one walk, congenial with his natural temper, or pointed out to him by the direction of duty and conscience. Though it be true, that a beautiful harmony and relation of parts subsist among the various species of knowledge, it is no less true that a large and capacious mind alone can embrace the whole in one unclouded view; and that a defect of comprehension will reverse the natural order of objects, and obscure that luminous arrangement in things which illustrates their mutual connection.

It being then premised that every man should fix upon one object, and

and make his pursuit subservient to it, as many men have talents which fit them for excelling in different pursuits, though few can attain perfection in more than one, it is essential to the interests of mankind, that the most dignified and important be selected by the majority. It is my intention to offer to public notice a few considerations on some philosophical and literary topics. By way of introduction to the discussion of each subject, I propose to make remarks on the comparative utility and importance of that part of learning under which it classes. But first I must remark, that the comparative value of one pursuit and another is not always a proper criterion by which to be guided in our choice of either; where there is a decisive bent towards any species of learning, it is laudible, under favourable circumstances, to encourage the propensity, since in all probability the greatest improvement will be made in that science which is cultivated with the most ardent attachment. It is only when no strong predeliction appears, that the rule of utility can be rightly applied to the choice of objects, which engage the attention of the human understanding.

I shall, first, treat of religion, the most noble pursuit in which man can employ his rational powers. Religion and morality are the only two things which can be properly said to be the great end of our being. They concern every individual, and constitute the foundation of all solid happiness. These propositions cannot be affirmed of any other pursuits. We must therefore assign the highest rank to those objects which are recommended by so marked a superiority. In treating the subject of religion as a matter of speculation, it is necessary to anticipate objections, which gratify the malice of infidelity, and alarm the groundless apprehensions of weak piety. By the one, religion is esteemed a mere artifice of priestcraft, a sentiment originating in the fears of mankind, a popular delusion, unworthy the serious examination of a philosophical inquirer. By the other, it is thought too sacred to be submitted to the investigation of fallible reason, or subjected to the sport of prophane raillery, pride, and sophistry. Both ways of contemplating religion are equally injurious to the advancement of human happiness, by contributing to the diffusion of sceptical levity and of blind superstition. The truth lies between these two opposite modes of thinking. The proofs of religion address themselves both to the understanding and the heart. Such is their weight and dignity, you cannot subvert them by the most forcible attacks of argument, or discredit them by the contemptuous sneer of wit and ridicule.

Though religion, founded upon the basis of reason, is of all sciences the most sublime and comprehensive in its nature, though it leads to conclusions deeply interesting to the human mind, it is less cultivated by men of superior talents than almost any other intellectual pursuit. There are many acute and learned men who contract a dislike to all religious subjects, from having long accustomed their minds to dwell upon the disgusting forms in which religion appears among the credulous and illiterate vulgar. They have associated ideas of contempt with a term much abused, and can scarcely bring themselves to imagine any real dignity in a thing which they see constantly united with gross folly and depravity. There is no art or science whatever, which is not disgraced by ignorant pretenders, and it is equally unfair to despise pure religion, because it degenerates in the systems of superstitious devotees, as it would be to undervalue the sublimest poetry after having read the wretched rhymes of a low scribbler.

In countries where the established religion

religion is most corrupt, or most absurd, the sceptical philosophy is sure to prevail. It made rapid advances among the literati of Rome, during the decline of the republic, and in a short time afterwards had infected almost all orders of society. A passage in the second satire of Juvenal affords a very remarkable proof of the general contempt into which religion had fallen, and of the consequent depravity in principle and practice. But we need not go so far back into the history of nations to illustrate a point which is confirmed by the well-known progress of atheism in a neighbouring country, which has so lately been the scene of unexampled horror.

By speculative religion, I mean, a knowledge of those truths which the light of nature discovers concerning the being and attributes of God, together with that more clear insight into the perfections of our Maker, and the glories of a future world, imparted by divine revelation. The study of such momentous doctrines I deem the first and greatest object of a rational and intelligent nature, the purest discipline of a human mind, the end and perfection of all human learning. To be wholly destitute of this divine knowledge, is to forfeit our natural privileges, to forget our superior endowments, and to degrade ourselves in the scale of being. All other studies may terminate in the mere gratification of curiosity; religion alone, while it opens abundant sources to the inquisitive mind, establishes an indissoluble connection between our present and future being, thus making our final happiness the great end of our researches.

But reflection on the divine nature and the future prospects of mankind, however it may strengthen virtuous emotions in the mind of a modest, humble inquirer, may be strangely perverted by men who love disputation more than truth. No bias can be more unfavourable to fair discussion than the desire of appearing ingenious and subtle in argument; united with a turn for ridicule, it baffles every attempt to produce conviction. The force of credulity and early prepossessions are powerful obstacles to truth, but not insurmountable. They may be overcome, though with great difficulty, by patient investigation. They may be considered as natural infirmities of the understanding, for which some cure is provided.

Scepticism is a wilful perversion of intellect, a vice which cankers the mind, and bids defiance to every remedy. Its object is not so much to clear up old doubts, as to create new difficulties; not to instruct, but to perplex. In religion, as in every other subject, there are certain limits fixed to human understanding, beyond which it is presumption to extend our inquiries. When we transgress these natural boundaries, a sure punishment awaits us. Suspense agitates the breast, and melancholy overclouds the imagination. Religious studies, while they abound in topicks which exercise the most profound understanding, are no less fruitful in ideas which excite the finest feelings and affections of the human heart. No other pursuits require a more vigorous exertion of the reasoning faculty, or afford so ample a scope for the charms of imagination. There is scarcely any source of knowledge, from nature or art, which may not be rendered tributary to the praise of our Creator. Whatever cavils may be raised from a partial and indistinct view of the divine intentions in the present order of things, we must be sensible, on mature deliberation, of the comparative insignificancy of all pursuits, which are bounded by time, and do not centre in that Eternal Being from whom all knowledge proceeds. *W. W.*

TAXES

TAXES on LUXURY and VANITY proposed.

To the Editor.

SIR,

MOST of our taxes are laid on articles of necessity: many very productive ones might be laid on articles of luxury, vanity, and the like.

Why not grant licences to use the title of *Esquire* to such persons as may apply for the same, making it hereditary in them, and their eldest sons, as other titles are? and prohibiting every other person from using the same, members of the House of Commons, Judges, Justices of the Peace, commissioned officers in the Navy; Captains, and all officers of superior rank to Captains in the army, Barristers at law, Magistrates of corporate towns for the time being, always excepted.

Persons applying for such licences whose ancestors have been in possession of lands for 500 years and upwards, to pay for the same ten guineas, if for 400 years, 15 guineas, if for 300 years, 20 guineas; if for 200 years, 30 guineas; if for 100 years, 40 guineas, and all other persons taking such licences, 50 guineas. As this tax would be quite voluntary, nobody could object to the paying of it; and in order to distinguish such persons, they might have the privilege to wear gold watches themselves, their eldest sons, their wives and daughters; all persons of inferior degree being forbid to use or wear any other watches than in silver, or what are called metal cases.

Edinburgh, 20th Sept. 1804.

On the DUTIES *of* WOMEN.

To the Editor.

SIR,

I Have read with much satisfaction the observations which appeared in your last Number, "on the influence women have on society." In addition to what your correspondent there stated, I shall subjoin the following remarks:

The two sexes of which mankind are composed are essential to the happiness of each other, and although nature has allotted them distinct departments, the one has no reason to despise the other. The voice of nature, indeed, seems to have dictated that women should not engage in war, but there remains for them duties of as much consequence to discharge. Anacreon of old was so much convinced of the impropriety of women engaging in war, that he ascribes beauty to the female sex as more powerful than fire or steel. Euripides too, in his tragedy of Medea, makes that princess answer to the reproaches which were made against women, that they led an inactive life at home, while their husbands fought for their safety, "that she would rather stand thrice beside warlike weapons, than once endure the pains of childbirth."

Among the Greeks during the Trojan war the same ideas prevailed respecting the duties of women, for we find no female warriors among them. In after ages, indeed, we read of the Amazons, but however much celebrated they may be by ancient writers, their conduct was certainly unnatural. There is a line drawn between the duties of both sexes which ought not to be violated; hence Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver, has been much censured for paying so lit-

the regard to the duties of women, and in assigning them the same employment as men. It tended to destroy that delicacy and tenderness which constitute the chief ornament of the female sex, and by extinguishing these sentiments, made them savage and cruel.

It will appear of what consequence the female sex are in society, when we reflect that a very great part of the happiness of a state depends on the conduct of women. When they become depraved, vices of all kinds enter rapidly among the inhabitants of a state. Hence politicians have ascribed the overthrow of the Spartan Commonwealth to the vices which prevailed among their women. The history of modern times too sufficiently shews of what consequence the morals of women are in a state, and that when they become depraved those of the community become so too. I mean the conduct of the female sex in France. The immodesty and brutality which appeared among them at the revolution, and during the first years of their republic, were the forerunners of those calamities which have befallen France.

I have thus shewn of what consequence women are in society, and accordingly among all civilized nations they are held in that honour and respect which are their due. It is only among savages, or at least nations who labour under false ideas of religion, as among the Turks in modern times, who think that there is little difference between the female sex and the brutes, by denying them souls, that women are not respected. The burden of bearing and bringing up a family is not an easy task, and this belongs in a peculiar manner to women; for philosophers have shewn, that the father, without the assistance of the mother, would be unable to take charge of his family; and that the care of both is therefore necessary, as the mother would be naturally too gentle, and the father too severe. In holy writ there is nothing so much commended in women as modesty, and the proper discharge of family duties; hence the price of a virtuous woman is far above rubies. Her character is described at large in the 31st chapter of the Proverbs, to which I refer the reader. She is represented as the honour of her husband; and since this is the case, we may see how unnatural the ideas of those are who deny that women are of use in society. Euripides represents it as the greatest happiness, when a wife is not at variance with her husband. I shall therefore conclude what I have to say on this subject by quoting the words in the original:

Ηπιε μειζων γιγνεται σωτηρια
Οταν γυνη προς ανδρα μη διχοστατη.

To which I shall likewise add another quotation from Simonides:

Γυναικος ουδεν χρημ' ανηρ λαιζηται
Εσθλης αμεινον ουδε χειρον κακης. F.

Coincidence of Manners, Customs, &c. among different Nations.

1. ARTIFICIAL modes of trial, such as those by fire and water, have prevailed in countries the most remote from one another, and among people the most dissimilar in the general complexion of their character. This striking coincidence is, most probably, to be ascribed to that superstious spirit which has in every region of the globe, at one time or other, enslaved the human mind. Wherever an accurate knowledge of God and Providence is wanting, and reason has lost its proper influence, imagination, of course, takes unbounded licence. This wild and active

active faculty, operating in conjunction with that propensity to religious belief which seems to be interwoven in our constitution, and which, among the unenlightened, ever appears in the form of credulity, readily ascribes to divinity numberless dispositions and characters which it does not possess; and among these, the most natural, to those who have any ideas at all of morality, is the divine interference, in order to determine the innocence or guilt of such as have been accused of crimes. The trial by ordeal existed in most parts of Europe during the dark ages, particularly in France, Germany, and Britain. At that time, those extravagant fables concerning the miracles of the saints, to which Popes, and Councils, and Priests had imparted authenticity, were received by the people with implicit credit and admiration. Men were accustomed to believe, that the established laws of nature had been suspended on the most trifling occasions, and for the most frivolous purposes. Their fancy conceived a divine interposition in every event, however insignificant. And they thought it reasonable to conclude, that the deity who disposed of affairs of lesser moment by a miraculous intervention, would never fail to exercise a peculiar providence over concerns of higher importance, that were solemnly referred to the decision of his wisdom and justice. But it is not only in Europe that the trial by ordeal has existed; this mode of trial has been practised also in Persia and Japan, as we learn from Texevia and Kempfer. The origin of the practice, however, is the same in this case as in the former; a spirit of superstition, which, strengthened by tales of wonder, and unrestrained by any acknowledged authority, has led the inhabitants of those countries to fill a variety of objects, animate and inanimate, with a divine influence, and to make superior power condescend to interfere in their disputes whenever interest or passion found it convenient.

It may be observed here, that in one instance, as related by Texevia, the Indians seem to have been more equitable and humane in their treatment of suspected persons, than our forefathers were in this country. On the Malabar coast, when a man is accused of any heinous crime, such as theft, adultery, or murder, he was obliged, for the purpose of vindicating his innocence, to swim across the Cranganor, a river that abounds in large and voracious alligators. If he was so fortunate as to reach the opposite bank without injury, he was exculpated, and his reputation cleared. If he was devoured by the way, the evidence against him was compleet, and no doubt remained of his guilt. In this case, the culprit had some chance of escaping; though, experience shewed, it was extremely little; for most frequently he fell a prey to the alligators. But those who were tried in this country on suspicion of witchcraft, could not comfort themselves with even the possibility of surviving the experiment which they were doomed to undergo. A woman accused of this crime had her hands bound together, and in this fettered condition was thrown into a pool of water. If she sank, she was accounted innocent of the crime laid to her charge; and if she came safe to shore, her guilt was thought to be demonstrated, and she was, accordingly, condemned to die. In this manner, the poor woman had no chance of escaping. In either case, her fate was the same; her character might be freed from reproach, but her life was a necessary sacrifice.

2. The feast of tabernacles among the Jews, which was originally intended as a memorial of the sojourning of their ancestors in the wilderness, was sadly corrupted in the later periods of the Jewish state. Instead

stead of being kept sacred to the services of gratitude and devotion, it became a season of levity, and exhibited such scenes of indecent merriment, as led Plutarch to say, that they celebrated this festival in honour of Bacchus. What a striking resemblance is there, in this respect, between the feast of tabernacles among the Jews, and tent-preachings in Scotland. These were, doubtless, intended at their first institution to subserve useful purposes--to promote the instruction and improvement of those who should attend them. But by degrees they degenerated into scenes of vanity, idleness, and dissipation. In many places of the west, and of the north, they are little better than fairs, in which drunkenness, bloody battles, and other kinds of licentiousness, form a very prominent feature. *Burns*, in his *Haly Fair*, has described them with a good deal of poetry and humour. And though the description is evidently exaggerated, and deformed, with several strokes of profane raillery, it must be allowed, on the whole, to be extremely just. Thus, we see, that the best ordinances are liable to be perverted. When society is generally corrupted, institutions, the most sacred in their origin, nature, and design, are abused without compunction. The most wholesome restraints are broken or despised. One individual countenances another; and the error that is at first limited to a few, gradually gains ground till it become almost universal. The temptations to folly and wickedness, which the feast of tabernacles and tent-preaching naturally present to a mind accustomed to licentious indulgence, are too frequent, too obvious, and too inviting to be resisted. And great numbers of those who assemble on such occasions, having no regard whatever to the proper object of meeting, will consider them only as opportunities of gratifying their irregular desires. *A. T.*

(*To be continued.*)

Inquiry concerning *a* Passage *in* Goldsmith's Deserted Village.

To the Editor.

SIR,

CAN any of your correspondents be so obliging as to inform me, what is meant by *Altama* in Goldsmith's Deserted Village, page 69. 12mo. Edition, Lond. 1804. By Lackington, Allen, and Co. In the the following lines?

—To distant climes a dreary scene,
Where half the convex world intrudes between,
Thro' torrid tracts, with fainting steps they go,
Where wild *Altama* murmurs to their wo.

As the piece is very beautiful, any of your correspondents that will be so good as give information through the medium of your Magazine, will much oblige,

SIR,

Your most obedient servant,

Juvenis Condiscipula.

Also I would like to receive information concerning the taking paint off cloth, when stained.

J. C.

To the Editor.

SIR,

The following observations, on the manufacture of salt in Scotland, were written by a gentleman well qualified to state facts with accuracy

curacy, and to suggest important alterations, and improvements, in the manufacture of salt. They are curious, and may be useful, partly by enabling such of your readers as are interested in this branch of our manufactures, to compare the state of the salt manufacture in 1787 with what it is at present, and partly because many improvements in the manufacture, and some alterations with regard to the salt laws, are suggested which may even now be highly useful.

A.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* STATE *of the* MANUFACTURE *of* SALT *in* SCOTLAND *in* 1787.

1. *Of the Situation of the Works, and Number of Salt Pans, &c.*

	Pans.
1. AT Cockenzie,	11
2. Prestonpans,	5
3. Sir Arch. Hope's works,	4
4. The Earl of Abercorn's,	9
5. Grange, 5. Thirlstane, 6. Boness, 8.	19
6. Culross, 4. Torryburn 7	11
7. Inverkeithing, 4. St David's, 3.	7
8. Kirkcaldy, 5. Dysart, 6.	11
9. Weymss, 8. Methel, 9.	17
10. Leven, 2. Drummachy, 3. Largo, 2.	7
11. Newark,	9

The writer of these sheets has been conversant for several years in the manufacture of salt, and has had occasion to be at all the works on the Forth. He is much a stranger to the west coast, but has been told that there are at,

12. Saltcoats, Irvine, &c.	8
In all	118

At different periods, there have been several other salt works in Scotland, which have been suppressed for want of fuel, and other local inconveniencies.

A salt pan of the ordinary size, in good repair, and constantly employed, may make about 4500 bushels of salt in a year.

The situation of the works of Newark, Drummachy, Largo, and Cockenzie, have the advantage, with regard to the quality of the sea water. At the works farther up the Forth, or near the mouth of rivers, there is a greater mixture of fresh water in it, and of course less salt, which requires greater evaporation. But perhaps the circumstance may be counterbalanced by a difference in the quality of the coals.

The east part of Berwickshire is supplied with salt from Cockenzie and Newark.

The rest of that shire, the south part of Peebles, and west part of Lanarkshire, the shires of Selkirk, Roxburgh, Dumfries, Kirkcudbright, Wigton, Air, Bute, Renfrew, and Argyle; the west parts of the shires of Dumbarton, Inverness, Ross, Sutherland, and Caithness, with the west and north isles, are supplied with salt, made on the west coast, or imported to it.

The north part of Peebles, with all Haddington, and Edinburgh-shires, get salt overland, from Cockenzie, Prestonpans, and Abercorn.

Linlithgow, and Stirling-shire, the north part of Lanark, and east part of Dumbarton, get their salt by land carriage from Boness, Culross and Torryburn.

Fife, Kinross, Clackmannan, and Perthshire, south of the water of Ern, are also supplied, over-land, from the works adjacent to these shires.

The north part of Perthshire, and all Angus, get salt imported to Perth, Dundee, Arbroath, and Montrose.

The

The shires of Kincardine and Aberdeen get salt brought coastways, to Bervy, Stonehaven, Aberdeen, Peterhead, and Frazerburgh.

Salt is imported to Banff, Speymouth, &c. for supplying Banffshire.

The shires of Murray, Nairn, and Cromarty; the east part of Inverness, Ross, Sutherland, and Caithness, get salt imported to Speymouth, Inverness, Fortrose, &c.

Very little salt for home consumpt is carried from the Frith of Forth farther north than Inverness, nor is any taken from that frith to the west coast and isles, unless to cure fish, and a cargo or two some years to Dumfries, and that neighbourhood.

The works at Newark, and Cockenzie, lye adjacent to the herring, and other fishing, in the mouth of the Forth. In some years these fishings take away much salt from them.

The salt made at Prestonpans, Sir Arch. Hope's, and Lord Abercorn's works, is all carried, overland, to supply the adjacent counties, and much of it is brought to Edinburgh, Leith, Dalkeith, &c. taken hot from the pans every day.

A considerable quantity of salt is also taken by land, as far as Dunbarton, Glasgow, Stirling, Alloa, Clackmannan, Kinross, &c. from Borness, Culross, and Torryburn; the remainder made at these works is shipped for the north country

The other works on the north side of the Forth, besides supplying Fife, depend on sea sales for their salt.

The salt made on the west coast, will, in part, supply the country adjoining, and the isles.

At the works where there is much land sale, they have the preference with respect to an advanced price, ready money, little waste, and a quick sale for their salt.

2. *Of the quantity of Salt made in Scotland.*

It appears from the custom-house books, and otherwise, that the average quantity of salt made in Scotland for 10 years back, is much about 350,000 bushels. Hence if one pan makes 4,500 bushels, 80 pans may make the whole.

It is found, from repeated observations, that a family consisting of eight persons, in the station of a common farmer, will use four bushels of salt in a year, which is 28lbs. to each person.

The number of inhabitants in Scotland is computed to be 1,500,000; now if the allowance of 28lbs. to each person is founded, the 1,500,000 of people will consume 750,000 bushels of salt, which is 400,000 bushels more than are made, consequently these 400,000 bushels must be imported, or smuggled in upon us.

The Earl of Dundonald, in his treatise of the manufacture of salt, states 33¼lbs. of salt to each person, and that the million and half of inhabitants consume annually, 900,000, and infers from this, that 465,309 bushels are smuggled in upon us from Ireland.

Dr Smith, in the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons respecting the fisheries in 1785, states, that from April 1771, to April 1782, the average quantity of salt imported and made use of, for the fisheries, was, of our bushels, 127,769, and only 15,290 of British salt. It will not be controverted that considerable quantities of this foreign salt are clandestinely applied to other purposes, besides curing of fish.

From the above, it is evident, that the quantity of salt made in Scotland is vastly short of our consumpt of that article.

3. *Of the Quality of Scots Salt.*

By the precipitate method of making of Scots salt, it is not of a proper consistence, and it is not nor can it be, sufficiently purified from the various heterogeneous ingredi-

ents, with which sea-water is mixed, and which it acquires in the process of making salt of it. Some of these are, pancrust, creetch, bittern, clay, earth, &c. which must be unfriendly to the human constitution, and improper for curing provisions. These impurities will appear to any person, who will take the trouble to decompound a quantity of salt, or even to dissolve it in pure water; he will observe a sediment of various earthy, stony, bitter substances, &c. and the water discoloured and muddy.

Proprietors of salt works are not, in general, very careful about the quality of their salt. They are rather anxious to get as great a quantity made, with as little expence as possible, their price being much the same, whatever be the quality. The salt-boilers, or work-people, are as little concerned in this respect, their wages depending on the quantity they make. Merchants are easily satisfied in this particular, providing they are allowed good weight, and the salt be in such a condition as not to waste much while on their hands; and the public at large, who suffer most from this neglect, are not judges of the quality of salt, which is not easily distinguished in common use.

The age of salt is of much importance. When newly taken from the pan, it is soft, moist, easily dissolved in the air, and full of bittern. The bittern will continue to drain from it sometimes for three months, and more, after it is laid in the granaries. When it is sufficiently drained, and consolidated, it will have lost about $\frac{1}{9}$ of its weight after taking it from the pan. Hence the interest of the proprietors in getting it disposed of soon after it is made, is obvious.

The newness of salt, the impurities in it, and the weakness of it, render it insufficient for curing fish, and other provisions, which are intended for warm climates, or to be kept long; and hence proceeds the necessity we are under to import so great quantities of foreign salt, for these and other purposes.

4. *Of refining of Salt.*

A variety of methods for refining of English salt, have been prescribed by Loundes, Brownrigg, and other writers on that subject. Brownrigg holds out a method, which he affirms to be that which is practised by the Dutch. Be that as it may, no salt made in England is comparable, in point of purity and strength, to that which is made by the Dutch.

The high price of Scots salt, added to the additional expence attending any repeated process for refining it, is, and has always been, a bar in the way, which has frustrated every trial for that purpose, and, of course, it has never been attempted on a large scale.

Lord Dundonald is the only writer, as far as I know, who has prescribed a plan for the improvement of the manufacture of Scots salt. The process which his Lordship recommends for purifying it, must appear to every unprejudiced person to be rational, simple, and cheap, (he says it can be done for less than 1½d. per bushel,) but it is founded on a presumption that English rock salt will be permitted to be brought and refined at the Scots salt works.

5. *Of English Rock Salt.*

If about 23½ cwt. which is allowed for one tun, of crude rock salt, be dissolved in a quantity of sea water sufficient for that purpose, the solution, which will contain near 4½ tuns, according to the quality of the rock, and sea-water made use of, being boiled down in the same manner as practised in making of common salt, will produce 40 bushels of what is called refined salt, which will be stronger than can be obtained by a similar process from sea-water alone. But this refined salt is still

still much inferior in size and strength to bay, or foreign salt, and retains many of the impurities of common salt.

It requires from 32 to 40 tuns of sea-water alone, according to the season of the year, and the proportion of fresh water mixed with it, to produce 40 bushels of salt.

A comparative state of the quantity of salt which may be obtained from equal quantites of sea-water alone, and of brine, from the solution of rock salt in sea-water, with the expence of manufacturing both, cannot be set in a more forcible point of light, than in the words of Lord Dundonald.

" Sea-water on the Forth, at an " average of the year, yields $\frac{1}{35}$ of " salt; 100 tuns therefore contain,

	Tuns	cwt.	qrs.	lbs.
" Of salt, -	2	17	0	16
" Of water,	97	2	3	12

" 100 tuns of saturated solution of " rock salt in sea-water, contain,

	Tuns	cwt.	qrs.	lbs.
" Of salt, -	23	0	1	20
" Of water.	76	19	2	8

" The improper expenditure of fuel, " in making salt from sea-water, " without the aid of rock salt, cannot be more fully shown, than by " the above states. By the former, " upwards of 97 tuns of water must " be evaporated to procure 114 " bushels of salt. By the latter, " near 77 tuns, to obtain 920 bushels; a quantity with 20 tuns less " evaporation, 8 times greater than " is procured from sea-water alone. " From the above facts, it may be " safely concluded, that, to procure " the same quantity from sea-water " as from salt brine, it will require " 8 times the coals, and 8 times the " labour.

" The selling price of salt, at Liverpool, and on the Forth, confirms what is above stated:

" At Liverpool, common salt sells " at 6d. best salt, at 8d. per bushel. " On the Forth, from 15d. to 20d. " per bushel."

Rock salt is shipped free aboard, at Liverpool, at 8s per tun, for Flanders, and about 6s. 6d. per tun, for Ireland. The freight of refined rock salt, round the north of Scotland, is 14s per tun.

It has, at different periods, been moved to permit rock salt to be brought, in order to be refined, at the Scots salt works.

The advantages resulting from this measure would be,

1. It would reduce the price of our salt greatly.

2. It would enable us to increase the quantity, and to improve the quality of our salt.

3. It would prevent the importation of so much foreign salt.

4. Our salt might be a profitable article for exportation.

5. It would reduce the price of coals.

Notwithstanding these obvious advantages, like most other public-spirited, and patriotic plans, the measure has always met with opposition, and that from a quarter least to be expected, namely, from the salt owners in Scotland, who, undoubtedly, would be the gainers in the first instance.

The substance of their objections, as far as have come to my knowledge, is, 1. That it would be hurtful and ruinous to the coal works, where the salt is made. 2. That it would lay a number of people, and salt pans, idle, 3. That it would be no national benefit.

Their arguments, on these heads, are grounded entirely on a supposition, that we are not to make, and cannot dispose of, a greater quantity of salt, than we do at present, and that we cannot improve the quality of our salt.

Their reasoning tends to encourage an increase of labour and a consumption of coals, in making our salt. But we contend for a saving of coals, and

and of labour also. And we wish to extend this manufacture, by increasing the quantity, and improving the quality, so as to supply our own consumpt fully, and thereby prevent the importation of foreign and smuggled salt, and to make our own salt a profitable article of export trade.

If these important purposes can be affected, the people and pans alledged to be laid idle may still be employed, and the coals, held out to be lost, may be applied as they now are.

But supposing all the coals should not be used in making the salt, it may be asked, How are the proprietors of inland coal-works enabled to go on? their small coals are not applied to making of salt. What equivalent have they for this supposed loss? they are precluded from the various local conveniencies attending the works on the sea coast. The whole demand for their coals is confined to home sales, and yet coals are as low priced with them as at the other.

To argue that the coals, at the inland works, are of a harder quality, and do not produce so great a proportion of small coals, is absurd; it is not fact, nor can any reason be assigned why it should be so.

(To be concluded in our next.)

The Edinburgh Practice of POLITENESS, *or Rules for Genteel* BEHAVIOUR.

To the Editor.

SIR,

I Was lately solicited by two or three young friends, who acquainted me with their intention of visiting Edinburgh for the first time, to furnish them with such information as I might think necessary, respecting the most approved style of fashionable manners at present prevailing in that capital, that they might not be wholly at a loss how to conduct themselves in those polite societies to which they expected to be introduced on their arrival. As I thought their request not unreasonable, I promised to commit a few hints to paper for their direction; and as soon as they had left me, began to consider the subject with this view. I found it, however, a much more difficult task than I expected, to reduce my ideas into any kind of regular order; from the want, as I quickly discovered, of some general principle to connect them together. Being well assured, that so important an art as the practice of politeness must have its theory, I immediately applied myself to a close investigation of the phenomena of fashionable intercourse, as far as I remembered them; in the course of which I adopted and rejected several hypotheses, which, tho' they agreed with some facts, were contradicted by others. At length, after much time spent in conjecture, the whole truth rushed on my mind at once, attended with an effect on my nerves, very similar to what Rousseau describes himself to have felt when he conceived the first idea of his discourse on the inequality of conditions in society. The result which I have thus obtained, I consider as a true philosophical discovery; and as it affords a complete key to the behaviour of fashionable people, which may be of the greatest use to those who aspire to that character, I should think it an act of injustice to withhold it from the public. I shall state it in the form of a precept, that it may make the deeper impression on the reader's mind.

When you happen to be in company with one whom you consider your inferior, act as if he were really and bona fide *annihilated* by your presence; in other words, treat him as if he were *nobody*.

I am aware that this rule may be looked upon by some as imperfect, from its being confined to our intercourse

course with inferiors; but it is to be observed, that the men of fashion, (otherwise men of the world, *i. e.* men *in* the world, the rest of the species having no positive existence,) seldom, if ever, meet with superiors, nor indeed often with equals; so that the objection is evidently of no consequence. In nineteen cases out of twenty, the above maxim will be found applicable; and if developed by due reflection, will afford sufficient guidance in every point relating to the deportment of a gentleman. As, however, it is to the young and inexperienced that I address myself, I shall endeavour to make it more familiar to their understandings by a few subordinate rules, in which the mode of applying it in practice will be placed in a clear light.

1. In a company consisting of more than two or three persons, if a stranger should make his appearance whom you are inclined to suspect of vulgarity, do not, by rising from your chair, or suspending your discourse, give him any reason to suppose that you are sensible of his entrance, or perceive that an addition has been made to the party. You must not even look at him; for this would be a virtual acknowledgement that he occupies a part of space, and is really something. Of all the branches of the art, this is perhaps the one that has been carried to greatest perfection. It was once practised on a friend of mine by a whole company with such success, that being deeply engaged at the time in the study of the ideal philosophy, he actually doubted his own existence, and became a decided convert to the sceptical system.

2. If you should afterwards happen to meet the same person in the street, you must stare at him with all your might; at the same time not taking the slightest notice of him, or seeming to perceive him at all. I must acknowledge that this is far from being an easy attainment; and unless you are acquainted with the principle on which it is done, it is almost needless to attempt it. This I had the good fortune some time ago to discover, after a long and patient observation of some eminent practitioners in Prince's-Street, and shall now communicate for the benefit of their numerous and awkward imitators. The secret lies in supposing that the person you are meeting is *transparent*, and that you see some object beyond him in a direct line through his body. When this is well performed, he will actually be at a loss to know whether or not you really see him, even tho' your nose should be almost touching his, and probably will not accost you. However, should he imagine that you are walking in your sleep, and be desirous of cultivating your acquaintance (which indeed is not very likely) you may still continue as far as possible to act on the principle of treating him as a non-entity. If he offer you his hand, present your fore-finger only, as if there were nothing after all to take hold of.

3. When your company is wholly composed of vulgar people, never address any of them with the title of Sir, or Madam, which would be directly recognising their claim to individuality. For the same reason, never drink healths at table. In these circumstances you are at liberty to loll on your chair, pick your teeth, hum a tune, fix your eyes on the ceiling as if you were thinking, and in short do every thing you please exactly as if you were alone, which, in a fashionable sense, you really are.

4. In this case, it is evident that your purpose will be most effectually answered, by preserving a profound silence. If, however, you find that some of the company possess a tolerable share of talents and learning, which sometimes happens to very low people, you may allow them a kind of collective existence, and ha-

rangue

rangue them in set speeches, in the same manner as an advocate addresses the bench, and with as little ceremony. Should any person venture to suggest a modest doubt as to the truth of what you advance, take no notice of what he says, but pursue the train of your ideas, for the reason already given.

I trust, Sir, I need not point out how strictly these rules are deduced from the great principle on which my theory is founded, nor how well they correspond with the general practice of the fashionable world. I must confess, however, that comprehensive as they are, they do not embrace every thing necessary to form a complete gentleman. There is an accomplishment yet behind, to the attainment of which they can furnish little or no assistance, as it consists in the proper management of the features, particularly of the lips, which are employed in a very particular manner.

The most fashionable expression of countenance at present is what was called by the ancients the *Sardonic;* or a genteel medium betwixt a grin and a smile, inclining more to the former or the latter as occasion requires. It is effected by enlarging and drawing down the corners of the mouth, in a manner which cannot be clearly explained without the assistance of an engraving. It is evident that an art of this kind is only to be acquired by the study of good models, of which fortunately there is no scarcity; to which private practice before a mirror may be added for some time. But probably the most effectual method is to follow the example of those actors who endeavour, by artificial incitements, to produce in their minds those passions and emotions, the signs of which they are desirous of exhibiting in their countenance. Hence it will be proper for the learner, to fill his imagination with the highest conceit of his own rank and merits, together with the most sovereign contempt for those of others, which will greatly assist in giving his features the fashionable cast. By a careful adherence to this rule, and a diligent study of the maxims before laid down, if he is at the same time tolerably versed in that branch of the Scots Anglican dialect (commonly called *High English*, from its resemblance to *High Dutch*) which is at present the prevailing language in this country, I will venture to promise, that in the course of a very few weeks he will be enabled to acquit himself with credit and satisfaction in the most refined circles of the Scottish metropolis.

I am, Sir,

Yours, &c.

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A Treatise on the State of the Poor in Sickness: with the Proposal of a Plan for their Relief. Selected from Essays, lately published. By Richard Worthington, M. D. with some Additions.

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A Sermon preached in the Church of Louth, at the Anniversary Grand Provincial Meeting of Free Masons; 13th August, 1804. By the Rev. Thomas Orme, D. D. 8vo. 20 pages.

The Sword of the Lord. A Sermon preached, May 25, 1804. being the Fast Day. By the Rev. G. H. Glasse, A. M. 1s.

A Sermon preached at the Visitation of the Archdeacon of Norwich, at Walsingham, on May 1804. By Matthew Skinner, M. A. 1s.

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An Abstract of the whole Doctrine of the Christian Religion; with Observations. By John Anastatius Freylinghausen, Minister of St. Ulrich's Church, and Master of a School at Halle, in Germany. 8vo. 12s. boards.

LITERARY *and* SCIENTIFIC NOTICES.

A NOVEL from the pen of Mr GODWIN will make its appearance before Christmas.

A Correspondence between the celebrated COUNTESSES of POMFRET and HERTFORD (afterwards Duchess of Somerset.) during the travels of the former lady, will be published, by a branch of the family, early in the winter. The names of both these ladies will be immediately recognised by all persons of rank, and the lovers of literature and the arts are familiar with anecdotes of their intercourse with men of letters and poets. The letters of Lady Pomfret characterize the various courts abroad; and those of Lady Hertford abound in lively anecdotes of the fashionable, political, and literary world, as they existed in England about the year 1740. In a word, this Correspondence of two ladies of rank and acknowledged genius is likely to create an interest little short of that which has been excited by the admirable contemporary Letters of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu.

Mr BINGLEY has been some time engaged in collecting materials for a British Zoology. The first volume, containing the History of British Quadrupeds, will be ready for the press about Christmas. It is intended to insert in this work an engraving of every animal described, varieties as well as species. A publication of this nature, containing an account of the habits and manners of each, as far as these can be ascertained, has long been a desideratum in the literature of our country.

The Rev. Sir HENRY MONCRIEF WELLWOOD, of Edinburgh, is preparing for the press a volume of Sermons, which will appear in the course of the winter.

Mr BARTLEY, the ingenious Secretary of the Bath Agricultural Society, is about to publish a series of interesting Letters on *fine-wooled* Spanish Sheep, pointing out the superior advantages attending the introduction of that breed.

Dr DICKSON's Complete System of Practical Agriculture will be delivered to the public in a few days. When it appears, it will justify the labour of seven years, which have been employed in reducing to order the confusion and contradiction which, on the simplest points, have hitherto characterised the numerous books on this important subject. Dr Dickson's work consists of two large and closely-printed quartos; and the text is illustrated with nearly one hundred plates, many of them coloured from nature.

Proposals have been circulated for publishing, in three volumes, a volume to be delivered every four months, the principal Works of the late Rev. DAVID SIMPSON, A. M.

Mr HUGH FARMER's "Treatise on the Demoniacs of the New Testament," which has been several years out of print, is now in the press, and will be published about Christmas.

The

The Rev. T. HARWOOD is about to publish the History and Antiquities of Litchfield.

Mr ELLIS is engaged in an Abridgment of some of the most ancient English Metrical Romances. The tales will be told in prose, with occasional extracts from the original poetry; and criticisms on each tale will be annexed.

The Memoirs of the late Rev. GILBERT WAKEFIED will be published, in 2 volumes, in the course of the present month.

A new edition of the "Works of Ben Johnson," with a Life, is preparing for the press.

An Authentic Account of the actual present State of Peru, and of the adjoining Countries, will shortly appear, drawn from documents which deserve the public attention. In 1794, Mr JOSEPH SKINNER had the good fortune to purchase, from among the cargo of the St. Jago Spanish galleon, a most curious Journal or Miscellany, written and printed in Peru, by a society of men of letters; and also, a picture of immense magnitude, representing all the dresses of the Peruvian nations, painted by a native artist, and which cost in Lima 10,000l. sterling.—These Journals contain detailed accounts of Peru on every point that can interest the politician or philosopher; and Mr Skinner has drawn up a Work, embellished with engravings of subjects selected from his great picture, which will answer every inquiry relative to the state of that remote and almost unknown part of the world.

Extract of a letter from the Honourable FREDERICK NORTH, Governor of Ceylon, to the Right Hon. Lord HOBART, dated January 1, 1804. received by Lord CAMDEN, one of his Majesty's principal Secretaries of State, and communicated by his Lordship to the Royal Jennerian Society.—"Vaccination was unfortunately suspended, in some degree, while the English Medical Gentleman attended the army at Kandy; and a spurious virus had been made use of in the Northern District, the failures occasioned by which had discredited that beneficial practice. True genuine vaccine matter has, however, been sent thither, and confidence is restored, throughout all these settlements, in that mode of inoculation. At Columbo, it is kept up with some difficulty for want of subjects, as almost all the inhabitants of the neighbourhood have had the small-pox, in some manner or other; and the salutary consequences of the attention of government to that object, appear in the total absence of that disease from the province during the last six months, a circumstance hitherto unknown."

Preparations are making at the British Museum for building a gallery for the reception of a fine Collection of Antiquities. It is to adjoin the present reading room, and will extend a considerable way along the terrace, on the south side of the garden.

KOENIGSMAN has written a Treatise on the Geography of Aristotle, in the course of which he enters into the consideration of the genuineness of the Treatise "*De Mundo*;" and pronounces it to be supposititious, and unjustly attributed to the philosopher whose name it bears.

One of the most important military works that has been published of late years on the Continent, is a "Treatise on the Art of War," by ROCHE-AYMON, a distinguished officer in the Prussian service.

A Critical Account of the Manuscripts collected in the East by BESZELIUS, Bishop of Upsal, has been lately published by AURIVILLIUS.

A splendid edition of KLOPSTOCK's "Messiah" is at present publishing in Holland."

MOURADGEA D'OHSSON has published an "Historical View of the East.

WITCH's Geographical Dictionary of Russia, with capital maps, is going on with renewed spirit.

A new edition of Luther's Works, with several unpublished letters and discourses of that great man, is printing at Helmstadt. It is intended also to erect a monument to the memory of this Reformer in Germany.

A small pamphlet has been lately published in Paris, entitled "Observations on the Opinion of certain Hellenists respecting the Modern Greek," by P. CONRIKA, an Athenian; wherein the author makes it his business, first to prove the falsity of the assertion of Bonamy, that the modern Greek has been constructed upon the French, or upon the French and Italian tongues taken together. M. CONRIKA shews, on the contrary, that the genius of the modern Greek language has no other conformity with French and Italian expressions, than what merely results from the conformity of these two lan-

guages

guages with the ancient Greek. He then specimes the thirteen idioms of the Graecobarbarous language: he designates the jargons into which these idioms are subdivided, and proves that the pure modern Greek is derived from the ancient Greek language only. These ideas are developed more at length in the pamphlet, which is well worthy the notice of the amateurs of the Greek language, and which is not susceptible of further analysis, as the subject of this solid production is handled with great precision, although with perspicuity.

Professor FIORILLO, Inspector of the Paintings in the University of Gottingen, has lately published twelve very instructive Memoirs on different objects of the arts. One of these is intitled, "Fragments to serve as a History of Painting and of Sculpture in Germany, from Charlemagne to the Beginning of the Fifteenth Century." Every century in the history of Germany from Charlemagne offers us some isolated examples of artists, and of works of art. That Emperor himself had built the palaces of Ingelheim and of Trebur, conformably to what he had seen of the Roman architecture. The author has detailed with care all that we read concerning the monuments, whether of the time of Charlemagne, or of the following times. He likewise treats of those that yet remain to us. We owe, he observes, almost every thing to the monks, and to those who built the churches. It was only a few Emperors that protected architecture, and held it in consideration. Otho I. for instance, Charles IV. and some others. Under a greater number of Emperors, we find presents made of works of sculpture, of painting, and of glyptique. Conrad II. ordained in a synod, in the year 1205, (and the order was renewed several times in the sequel,) that every church should be ornamented with a painting, particularly of the Virgin. This picture is named in the writers of those times, *Annunziata*, *Ancona*, *Cona*. We likewise find a painting named *Majestas*. The formation of the third estate, by the municipal establishments of towns, was likewise favourable to the arts. Rome had still some superb monuments in a state of good preservation. And, lastly, commerce becoming more extended, contributed most of all to make the arts flourish.

M DE SACY, of the National Institute of France, highly celebrated for his intimate acquaintance with a great number of languages, has lately published, at Paris, the second edition, corrected and much augmented, (the third part of it being entirely new,) of a work, which he entitles "*Principes*," &c.: or "Principles of General Grammar, adapted to the Capacities of Young persons, and proper to serve for an Introduction to the Study of all Languages. This general Grammar, which is, as it were, the type of all particular grammars, is divided into three parts: the first treats of proposition (*de la proposition*;) the second, of numbers (*des nombres*;) and the third, of syntax. These three parts comprehend the whole art of depicting speech, and of giving existence to our conceptions. Among other terms created by the author, is the distinction which he establishes between adjectives of circumstances, and adjectives of qualification (*les adjectifs circonstances, et les adjectifs qualificatis.*) The third part, which is entirely new, is the result and summing up of the whole Work. It can only be understood by such pupils as have mastered the two former, and have been properly initiated and grounded in analysis. The two last chapters are models of this anylysis; the first is taken from the Funeral Elogium upon Henrietta Maria of France, by Bossuet; and the second, from the first Catilinarian Oration of Cicero. By applying the analytical method to the above two passages, replete with eloquence, and so interesting in their career or progress, M De Sacy makes it his business to shew how far the orator is indebted to logic for furnishing him with thoughts, and how far he is indebted to the art of oratory for putting them into usage and practice; this application of principles to examples, combining all the results contained in the two former parts of this work.—"Chapters so new, so useful, and instructive, are not to be found, (say the French journalists) either in our best grammars, or in the grammars of other nations." The same journalists add—"It may be affirmed, that in a volume of not more than 336 pages, are contained all the elements of a science which has been the object of the meditations of the greatest philosophers, and of the most enlightened grammarians."

The Baron D'ARETIN, librarian of the Elector

Elector of Bavaria, at Munich, has made a curious discovery in the library of that city. An Ancient Latin manuscript of the thirteenth century has furnished him with a Treatise on the Greek Fire. It not only gives the receipt for it, which scientific men supposed to be lost, but likewise contains a process for the making of gunpowder, conformable to that employed at present. M. d'Aretin has published this Treatise, with an Historical Introduction, in his Journal.

The Imperial Academy of Sciences, at Petersburgh, have published the first part of a Technological Journal: one volume, comprehending two parts, is to be published yearly. The object of this work is to make known, by a ready channel, the latest discoveries in the arts, and their uses.

The Academy of *Belles-Lettres* and Antiquities of Stockholm has proposed a medal of the value of 26 ducats, as a prize for the best discourse on the following subject:—"To compare philosophically the tragedy and comedy of the Greeks and Romans with those of modern nations, to explain their respective advantages, and to shew what improvement may still be made in the dramatic art.

The ELECTOR of BADEN has established a Literary Censorship, consisting of two persons of the Catholic and two of the Reformed Church. The Professors of the University of Heidelberg are permitted to publish any works, with their names, without being subject to the Censorship.

The sale of VOLTAIRE's and ROUSSEAU's Works has been prohibited at Vienna. They cannot be procured without the permission of the Censor.

A literary museum, under the title of Museum Alexandrinum, has been lately opened at St. Petersburgh.

Two periodical publications have lately been suppressed in what is called the Batavian Republic.

All the circulating libraries at Salzburg have been suppressed, except three public ones, with a view, it is said, to guard the morals, but truly the *politics* of the inhabitants.

A monument erected at Upsal, in honour of Linnæus, is nearly finished. It is placed in the New Museum of Natural History, founded by Gustavus III. The design was furnished by DESPREZ. The hall to which the name properly belongs, and which is destined to public lectures, occupies the whole extent of one of the wings of the edifice. The grand entrance opens into the botanical garden. A majestic portico of eight Doric columns is placed in front. The statue of Linnæus is raised in a niche, lighted from above, to which there is an ascent by several steps of white and black marble. Allegorical ornaments, figures in bas relief, decorate the whole extent of the hall.

The geographers in France, in compliment to their self-named EMPEROR, are new-modelling all their works in this science.

In removing the rubbish of the Castle of *Neuilly-l'Eveque*, situated near Isigny, in the department of Calvados, was found a mutilated statue, the head of which is marble, and the body of stone. Below is an inscription, in which may be distinguished the letters W. I. M.; and further on, O. D. IV. The head is in better preservation than the other parts. The costume is that of the knights of the eleventh and twelfth centuries. Near it were discovered some fragments of a collar of copper, gilt.

Poetry.

LOVELY JEAN.

BY THE LATE W. ALLAN.

See an account of him page 652.

THE splendors of the ev'ning sky
Had gilded yonder cliffs with gold,
The western breeze was heard to sigh,
And brush the white waves as they roll'd;
And sinking in the closing west
The beaming star of day was seen,
When last those winding shores I trac'd
In converse with my lovely Jean.

Delusive hope inspir'd the while,
My heart with more than wonted glee
And fondly deem'd her angel smile,
The pledge of pleasures yet to be.
And

And oft as with delighted eyes,
I view'd her mild and melting mein,
My frequent pray'r to heav'n would rise,
For lasting bliss to lovely Jean.

The rosy morn on dew-bright wing
Had chas'd afar the shades of night,
And o'er the flow'ry-bosom'd spring
Pour'd her pure streams of purple light;
Had waken'd with her whisp'ring breath,
The woodlark in her covert green;
But, ah! the clay-cold hand of death
Had clos'd the eyes of lovely Jean!

Here in that snow-wrapt grave she lies,
Where not a grassy blade can bloom;
Where not a flow'r is seen to rise,
To beautify her barren tomb.
Yet soon the gentle hand of Spring
Shall dress that sod in softest green;
And there the widow'd linnet sing
The plaintive dirge of lovely Jean.

STANZAS

TO A. B. ON THE BIRTH OF HIS SON.

By the Same.

WHILE War her blood-stain'd flag unfurls,
Terrific to the breeze of morn;
And Valour shakes his bossy shield,
And Rumour peals her changeful horn.

Retir'd from ev'ry hostile sound,
Where Br—k's peaceful streamlet flows,
The Muse attempts this simple wreath,
To bind thy son's sweet infant brows.

Lo! where his mother's dove-like eye,
Enamour'd gazes o'er his face,
And with maternal fondness tries
The features of his Sire to trace.

Already in his humid eye
She sees the fire of fancy glow;
Already on his lovely cheek
The rosy blush of beauty blow.

And, "Oh my child!" I hear her say,
While joy-wing'd hope delighted flies,
Thro' ev'ry fairy field of bliss,
In bright futurity that lies,

"Wilt thou, too, in some future hour,
"With all thy father's spirit fir'd,
"Explore the raptures of the lyre,
"And sing the strains by heav'n inspir'd?

"Or wilt thou join the patriot band,
"Blest guardians of Britannia's laws;
"Or lead her martial legions forth,
"And combat in her sacred cause?

"And wilt thou shed thy dearest blood,
"Then die neglected and forgot?
"Ah, rather share the peaceful joys
"Of calm contentment's humble cot.

"Let softer cares thy mind engage,
"And gentler thoughts thy bosom warm,
"Be thine to prop a father's age,
"And shield a mother's head from
"harm!"

SONNET

BY THE SAME.

To the memory of a man equally eminent for his talents, indolence, and poverty.

Inscribed to Palemon.

O'ER yon green grave, where R— forgotten lies,
Lo! Brothock's muse dejected bends her head,
Degen'rate sons, (indignantly she cries,)
The toils of genius have ye thus repaid?
Oh why, Palemon, sleeps thy gen'rous lyre,
When poor neglected merit claims the strain?
Say, glows no more that energetic fire,
That rouz'd to manly rage each village swain?
Though far from fortune's rich voluptuous clime,
Through pen'ry's barren paths obscure he stole,
Yet could not all the frowns of fate and time
Unman the sage's philosophic soul.
Oh, wake again the lay by truth inspir'd,
Tell how he liv'd and died—degraded and admir'd!

MORNING. AN ODE.

After the manner of Collins's inimitable Ode to Evening.

BY THE LATE WILLIAM ALLAN.

STAR of the dawn, fair harbinger of day!
With joy I view thy brightly-beaming eye,
Dart thro' the foggy clouds
That shade yon eastern hill;

While darkness rolling up her sable robe,
Slow to the west flies the approach of light,
O'er other realms to spread
Her beauty-sadd'ning veil.

Now a soft radiance steals along the sky,
By slow degrees; wide spreads the gather'd mist;
The broad horizon glows
With tints of lovelier hue.

And see! emerging from the glowing wave
The sun advances; hence, ye fiends of night!
Ye shades of darkness, hence!
Make way for his approach.

And

And now, while seated on the mountain's brow,
I see him dart his all-reviving rays
Along the cott'g'd plains,
Fresh meads and chryst'l rills,

Permit me, morning meek, in artless strains,
Raptur'd, to hail thy lov'd return, and join
The sky-lark's early song,
In warbling forth thy praise.

At thy approach the vallies smile, the hills
Lift their green heads in light; the craggy cliffs
Erewhile so dark and drear,
And hung with gloomy mists,

Shine by thy magic influ'nce; ev'ry stream,
That rolls its wild waves down the heathy hills,
Glows bright beneath the ray
That morning darts around.

Now sounds the grove with music wildly sweet;
The blackbird deep retir'd in woodland shades,
Pours her clear warbled notes
In lonely ecstacy;

The linnet, charming songster, trills her lays
Of gratitude and love; fair morning! all
The tenants of the grove
Thy much-lov'd presence hail!

On thee attend the Muses' sprightly train,
Fancy's young eye of transport; smiling hope
With dewy rose-buds wreath'd,
And love and genial joy:

With all the fairy forms the young bard views,
As haply thro' the dusky wood he roves,
Deep rapt in thought sublime,
And meditations high.

Nurse of each joy! while Spring bedews thy locks
With vernal show'rs; while Summer decks thy brows
With ev'ry flow'ret sweet
That blooms beneath her care;

While ardent Autumn paints thy glowing cheek
With deeper blushes; and while winter wild
Surrounds thy rising head
With clouds and howling storms;

So long shall health at thy first call appear,
To range the mountains round, so long shall peace
Within thy low'ring groves
Delighted love to dwell.

And ev'ry youthful bard that tunes the lyre
To nature's charms shall oft be seen with thee
In contemplation's guise,
Ranging the landscape o'er.

TO THE SCOTTISH MUSE.

OH tell, sweet nymph! a youthfu' bard,
What best may win thy coy regard;
Wha doubted lang, and aft despair'd
To learn thy arts—
The fairest gift, and best reward,
O' feeling hearts.

For ilk degree o' tunefu' lore,
Fit instrument thou hast in store;
Harps, that to martial tales o' yore
Fou loudly rang;
And past'ral pipes, o' ilka bore,
For shepherd's sang.

Heigh up, wi' thy ain fingers worn,
Hings pauky Allan's stock an' horn;
Wi' Robin's flute, which, still forlorn,
Thou fichs to see;
Waes me! for sic I ne'er was born,
Nor thou wad gie.

A wee short whistle, neat an' sma',
Is a' the teer that I can blaw;
I wadna like my face to thraw,
Wi toilsome squeel—
The ane that Beattie threw awa
Wad answer weel!

Fain wad I join thy minstrel band,
To sing my dear-lov'd native land;
And tho' baith rude and slow my hand,
If I be spar'd,
When time has gi'en me mair command,
I may be heard.

Sae when the warlike show gaes by,
And hautbois loud wi' trumpets vie,
Some tiny fifer we descry,
Amid the ranks,
Wi' martial striddle lifting high
His buskin'd shanks.

Oh could my heart but catch the fires
O' thy auld bards, wha gart our sires
Thrill to the trembling o' their wires,
In ha' or bower,
As to the sang they strak' their lyres
Wi' pith an' power!

In their rude lays, how bright appears
The antique guise o' former years!
Our humorous, social, bauld forbears,
Methinks I see them!
And aft times smiles, and some times tears,
I'm forc'd to gie them.

Whiles prancing forth wi' knichtly pride,
I see them graith'd, and bown to ride;

Or,

Or, forward louting, side to side,
In bluidy fields,
Piercing wi' spears extended wide
The southron shields.

Or round the ingle, warm and happy,
Telling auld wonders owre a drappy;
While frae the neuk a rhymin' chappy
Breaks on their stories;
His fancy reaming like the nappy,
Wi' some daft chorus.

Say, was it nature, luck, or art,
That could to rustic swains impart,
A power to melt and sway the heart
Wi' simple rhymes?
A skill, that dings the maist expert
O' modern times!

'Twas fancy, warm'd by passion's heat;
Thy pliant language, saft an' sweet;
And love, which taught them to repeat
The tender theme,
Till the free numbers learnt to meet
In equal frame.

Like some herd callan, wha has fand
A whistle fram'd wi' artfu' hand;
Lang tyme perplex'd he's seen to stand,
'Tween fear and hope,
Fitting his fingers to command
Ilk tunefu' stop.

Pleas'd wi' the sound sae clear an' shill,
Piping he gangs frae hill to hill;
Till some wild music comes o' will,
And strikes his ear;
Syne careless hints o' future skill
By fits we hear.

Hence in thy various lay we find,
Ilk joy and sorrow o' the mind;
As sydent bees frae every wind
Their hinny bring,
And rest on flow'rs o' every kind
Their flutt'ring wing.

In thy bauld uncorrupted style,
Humour is free to raise a smile;
Mirth, that had near-hand left our isle,
Tarries wi' thee;
Tho' weel thou kens, wi' simple wile,
To fill the e'e!

But modern sang is just a grane,
Its spirit lost, its substance gane;
Sound without sense, and endless mane
Without a cause;
Fixt requisites o' every strain;
Poetic laws!

The muse wha lang has borne the gree,
Is childish dull simplicitie;
Not her, sae heartsome, blyth and free,
The British maid;
But ane that owre the German sea
Has hither stray'd.

May ne'er sic pensy, pale fac'd quean,
On Scotland's halesome plains be seen!
May we still be, what we hae been,
A manly race;
And Scotia's bays ay flourish green
Wi' native grace!

DEFENCE OF SNUFF-TAKING.

TO THE EDITOR.

SIR,—A late correspondent, politely enough,
In want of a *text* gave a *lecture* on SNUFF,
Whose vot'ries he publicly branded with censure,
Not one of the tribe having courage to answer.
Now as I'm a *snuffer*, and scorn to flinch,
Permit me to treat our bold foe with a pinch,
In defence of my *box* and the sociable practice,
I'll beg just to mention what "matter of fact is."

SNUFF's known for a nostrum and famous specific,
Of pow'rs ever potent, and virtues prolific;
It may be applied with success in a school,
Where the teacher is plagu'd with a dunce or a fool;
When Euclid's diagrams and problems are solving,
Or astronomer's brains like the planets revolving;
When plagu'd with pedantical, crabbed constructions,
Or lost in a labyrinth of tangents and fluxions,
Immediate relief may in truth be expected,
If *quantum sufficit* by the nose is injected.

This wond'rous Catholicon, famous for *teachers*,
Is equally worthy th' attention of preachers;
When puzzled they pore o'er some intricate text,
Whose equivocal sense is by critics perplex'd;
Or ev'n in the pulpit, if mem'ry should fail,
'Tis but making a pause—a pinch to inhale.
The formal physician, when a patient applies,
Shakes his head, raps his box, and pretends to look wise;
E'en his worship the Justice, when quoting from Coke,
May perhaps misapply, though truth fall by the stroke;
Should a barrister cavil, his worship looks gruff—
Gives a frown from the bench—and decides with a *snuff*.

Reviewers condemn'd to the froth and whipt cream,
Of some lunatic fuddled in Helicon's stream,
Or

Or sitting in judgment on sophists too far gone,
Moon-struck, midst their dull metaphysical jargon;
With such soporifics the critics would I dose,
Had experience not taught them a cure by the nose.

If the proof of my doctrine on witnesses rested,
From the *beau* to the *beggar* it could be attested;
When Chloe treats Fopling with vapours or spleen,
He affects to take *snuff* to disguise his chagrin.
The *mendicant* spurn'd with contempt from the gate,
Takes a pinch of *plain brown*, and resigns him to fate.

To lengthen the list of the *snuff-taking* train,
Comes the poor *poetaster*, who travails in pain;
Tagging rhymes as he can to a verb's termination,
The alphabet torr'ring with strange combination;
He may bite at his quill, but his wisest resource is
To replenish his *snuff-box*, 'twill gain him new forces.

And to prove the assertion I've just now advanced,
At this critical moment, by fate it has chanced,
That my *brains* and my *box* are got empty together,
And, to speak in plain Scotch, shews the end of my *tether*;
Hence rhymes are a-wanting, else more might be said,
On the benefit both to finances and trade,
That arise from this *pro bono publico* plan,
To the tax-gath'ring tribe, and the nice artizan,
From invisible hinges, *a la mode de Paris*,
To the crooked Scotch horn, or *papier machie*.

But Apollo takes leave by th' olfactory nerve,
And wanting a stimulus, fancy must starve;
To ANTI-TABAC, though not vanquished, I yield,
For accident leaves him possessed of the field;
The Muse uninspired, can do nought without *rushen*,
But will stand to the charge when she gets ammunition.

Philo Tabac.

Arb——b.

MR EDITOR,—The following stanzas were written by a very respectable acquaintance of mine, and I have good reason to suppose them the result of the only *tete a tete* he ever held with the Muses, and *that* I believe was more from respect to his own wife than to the nine.

A Friend to Marriage.

THE MARRIED MAN.

I AM married and happy, with wonder hear this,
Ye lovers and rakes of the age;
Who laugh at the mention of conjugal bliss,
And whom only loose pleasures engage.

You may laugh, but, believe me, you're all in the wrong,
When you merrily marriage deride,
For to marriage the permanent pleasures belong,
And in them we can only confide.

The joys that from lawless connections arise,
Are fugitive, never sincere;
How fleeting the bliss, stole or snatch'd by surprize,
Interrupted by doubts and by fear.

But they in love's legal attachment entwin'd,
Taste of bliss unpolluted and pure:
Their joys from imbitt'ring reflection refin'd,
To life's latest hour will endure.

The love which ye boast of deserves not that name;
For true love is with sentiment join'd;
But yours is a passion, a feverish flame,
Rais'd without the consent of the mind.

How false the embrace that is barter'd for hire!
With this and with that ye are cloy'd;
Ye are led, and mis-led, by a flatt'ring false fire,
Till honour and health are destroy'd.

If ye ask me from whence my felicity flows?
My answer is short,—from a wife,
Whom for chearfulness, sense, and good-nature I chose,
These are beauties which charm us for life.

To make home the seat of perpetual delight,
Each moment with ardour we seize;
And we find ourselves happy from morning to night,
By our mutual endeavours to please.

PRO-

FOR several years past, it has been customary for the Chancellor of the Exchequer, at the end of each Session of Parliament, to lay before the House of Commons a State of the National Finances.—The following Statements were accordingly submitted to the House by Mr Pitt, on the 24th of July.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE FINANCES

For the Current Year.

EXPENDITURE.

The total sum to be raised in Great Britain, in the year 1804, may be estimated as follows:—

Interest on public funded debt, charges of management, and sinking fund, on 5th Feb. 1804,	L.	24,110,475
Interest, charges of management, &c. to be paid between the 5th February, 1804, and the 5th of January 1805, on stock created by loans of the present Session to the amount of 18,200,000l.		487,000
Civil Government of Scotland, pensions on revenue, militia and deserters' warrants, bounties for promoting fisheries, &c. estimated to be the same as in the year ending Jan. 5, 1804,		713,056
Charges of collecting and management of the revenue, estimated to be the same as in the year ending the 5th January 1804.		1,955,368
Proportion to be defrayed by Great Britain of the civil list, and other charges on the consolidated fund of Great Britain (the charges on the consolidated fund of Ireland, which is likewise a joint charge, being included in the supplies) being 15-17ths of 1,346,431l.		1,187,690
Carry forward	L.	28,463,589

Brought forward	L.	28,463,589
Supplies voted in 1804, for Great Britain exclusively		2,292,579
Supplies voted in 1804, for Great Britain and Ireland, proportion to be defrayed by Great Britain, 15-17ths of 40,510,699l.		35,744,735
Advance to Ireland		4,500,000
Interest for loans to the Emperor of Germany		497,528
Making in the whole	L.	71,498,431

RECEIPT.

The funds applicable to discharge the sum required for the service of the year 1804, may be estimated as follows:—

The gross receipt of the permanent revenue (after deducting the re-payments of over-entries, drawbacks, &c.) estimated to be the same as in the year ending 5th January 1804,	L.	35,440,278
Add excess of permanent duties outstanding and under bond on the 5th January 1804, beyond their amount on the 5th January 1803, after deducting 260,000l. the proportion of wine duty bonded, beyond the average importation of the last five years,		712,000
Allowance to brewers, which ceased in June 1803,		95,000
Further produce of taxes 1803, to the 5th of January 1804, taken as estimated for the whole year at 680,000l.		430,000
Estimated produce to 5th January, 1805, of the permanent taxes imposed in the present session; taken as estimated for the whole year at 800,000l.		200,000
Small branches of the hereditary revenue, and im-		
Carry forward	L.	36,877,278

Brought

Brought forward		L.36,877,278
prest monies repaid, estimated to be the same as in the year ended 5th January 1804	- -	350,000
Lottery, after deducting the proportion of Ireland		270,000
War Taxes, estimated to produce to 5th April 1805	- -	15,440,000
Surplus ways and means for the year 1803	-	1,370,000
Loan	- - -	14,500,000
Vote of Credit for Great Britain	- -	2,500,000
Making in the whole the sum of	- -	L.71,307,278

NATIONAL DEBT.

The total amount of the public funded debt of Great Britain was, on the 1st Feb. 1803, 567,008,973l. of which 67,255,915l. had been purchased by the Commissioners for the reduction of the National Debt, and 19,180,587l. had been transferred to them on account of land tax unredeemed,—leaving a funded debt unredeemed of L.480,572,476

And on the 1st Feb. 1804, 484,162,622

Making an increase, in 1803, of - -	3,590,146
The Outstanding Demands unprovided for, on the 5th Jan. 1803, amounted to - -	764,061
And on the 5th Jan. 1804, to - -	2,024,085
Making an increase, in 1803, of - -	1,260,004
The amount of Exchequer Bills created for the Service of 1803, and not paid off or provided for within the year was	4,500,000
And an increase of Navy Debt incurred, amounting to - -	931,655
Making in the whole an increase of Unfunded Debt and Outstanding Demands, within the year 1803, of - -	6,691,679
The Surplus of Ways and Means, for the year 1803 (after satisfying the sum of 579,706l. for interest of Exchequer Bills, and other Payments, not being part of the Supplies of the year) was - -	1,370,664
The Sum of - - was repaid to the India Company, on account of advances made by them for the Public Service during the late war.	1,000,000
The amount of War Duties of Customs and Excise, charged and outstanding on the 5th April 1804 (supposing it equal to their amount on 5th January 1804) was	2,416,207
And the Arrears of the Duty on Property, outstanding on the 5th April, may be estimated at about - -	4,500,000
Making in the whole about 9,286,000l. from which deducting the sum of 497,000l. wanting on the 5th April 1804, to make good the grant of 4,500,000l. there will remain about - -	8,789,000
Which compared with the above mentioned Increase of Unfunded Debt and Demands, amounting to 6,691,679l. will exceed the same by about	L.2,097,000

On presenting these accounts to the House, the Chancellor of the Exchequer expressed his happiness to find, that notwithstanding the pressure of the late war, and the enormous burdens of the present, the wealth of the country had progressively increased in a proportion, which exceeded the quantum of its expenditure. The proportion which the Sinking Fund now bore to the whole National Debt, greatly as the war had caused it to accumulate, was as 73 to 1; whereas at the time of its formation, 18 years ago, it was only in the proportion of 240 to 1, and even in the last year, no higher than as 77 to one. From all these and other calculations, he concluded its proportion to be greater now to the whole of the debt, than it was at the commencement of the war; and that if the war was to continue for several years, even at the additional expence of 40 millions annually,

ly, the Sinking Fund would still continue to rise in proportion to the general debt of the country. Respecting the loan of six millions to the Emperor of Germany, the Chancellor of the Exchequer observed, that his Majesty's Ministers had made strong applications on the subject to his Imperial Majesty, but as yet ineffectually, though the justice of the claim was very fully admitted. Considering the present situation of the affairs of the House of Austria, he could not pledge himself as to the time when the money would be paid, and could only say that the claim still remained.

Mr Addington said, he rose to confirm the statement just made, that the claim for the payment of the Imperial Loan had been repeatedly pressed by his Majesty's late Ministers on the Emperor of Germany, who admitted its justice, and that it was binding on the honour of that Government, though circumstances did not admit of the speedy repayment of it. With respect to the subject of finance, he said that this country should not be seduced from the practice of economy by the superabundance of its means. The increase of the finances, and flourishing state in which they now appeared, he attributed, in a great degree, to the measure he proposed in May 1803, for raising the sum of 10,000,000l. within the year. At that time, on account of some modifications and exemptions, which were thought necessary, he took credit for no more than 8,800,000l. though the produce was estimated this year at 12,500,000l. It afforded, of course, great consolation to the country, that in a sum of 25,000,000l of taxes, for war expences, the difference of calculations did not exceed the comparatively trifling amount of 190,000l. and that under the pressure of a war which excluded the exportation of British manufactures to the North of Germany, to Italy, and, except through indirect channels to Holland, and in a great measure to Spain also. Upon the whole, he was satisfied of the sufficiency of the country, both in financial resources and military force, to make all the exertions which its security could require.

The House in general approved of the different statements, but recommended to Ministers to use all necessary economy.

The following particulars of the account, made up to the 1st March 1804, by which the East India Company claims from Government the sum of 4,018,000l. was laid on the table of the House of Commons, last Session:

To expences of the intended expedition to Mauritius in 1794,	L.213,781
To ditto of the expedition to the Cape in 1794-5, &c.	106,187
To ditto of the intended expedition to Manilla, in 1797	443,260
To ditto of the capture and possession of Ceylon, and Dutch settlements to the eastward, including subsistence of prisoners in 1802	3,130,491
To ditto of the capture and possession of French and Dutch settlements on the Peninsula, including subsistence of prisoners in 1802	1,023,995
To purchase of vessels for his Majesty's fleet in India; stores supplied, &c. to 1800	43,024
To estimated expence of King's troops in India beyond the number authorized by acts of Parliament	559,114
	5,519,792

N.B. Interest at 4l. per cent per ann. to the 1st March 1804, is included in the above.

By cash received, including interest at 4 per cent per ann. to 1st March, 1804	L.1,501,666
By estimated balance, 1st March, 1804	L.4,018,126
	5,519,792

There are claims upon the Company, from the office of his Majesty's Paymaster General, for charges of the King's troops in India, amounting, 24th December last, to 1,285,248l. but the Company's claims on Government for the expences of the army sent from India to Egypt, will probably amount to upwards of 2,000,000l.

THE

THE CIVIL LIST.

An Account, shewing the Charge of the Civil List.

FIRST CLASS.

His Majesty's Privy Purse -	L.60,000	0	0
Her Majesty the Queen	58,000	0	0
The Prince of Wales	60,000	0	0
Duke of York -	12,000	0	0
Duchess of Cumberland	4,000	0	0
Duke of Clarence -	2,500	0	0
The Prince of Wales for the support of the Princess Charlotte	6,000	0	0
	L.202,500	0	0

SECOND CLASS.

Lord Chancellor, Lord Keeper, or Lord Commissioners of the Great Seal - -	L.5,000	0	0
Speaker of the House of Commons, 5l. a-day	1,825	0	0
Judges of the Court of King's Bench	8,500	0	0
Judges of the Court of Common Pleas	7,500	0	0
Barons of the Exchequer	6,500	0	0
Chief Justice of Chester	730	0	0
Justices of the Court of Great Session in Wales	2,900	0	0
	L.32,955	0	0

GENERAL ABSTRACT.—AMOUNT OF

1st Class R. Family	L.202,500	0	0
2d — Judges, &c.	32,955	0	0
3d — Ambass. &c.	106,936	6	8½
4th — Tradesmen, &c.	226,710	8	5½
5th — Menial Servants	97,539	4	11
6th — Pensions &c.	113,096	7	4
7th — Small Yearly Salaries -	62,529	5	1
Commissrs. of Treasury	8,000	0	0
First Commissioner	4,022	0	0
Chancellor of Exchequer	1,825	0	0
Occassional Payments	292,762	9	7½
	L.1,143,851	2	1½

The following is the gross receipt of the Taxes in England, with the charges of collection annexed, for the year ending January 5, 1804, viz.

Excise -	L.18,193,954	3	11½
Customs -	9,689,886	2	7
Land and Assessed Taxes	5,560,233	0	8½
Stamps	3,241,791	3	1½
Post Office	1,156,556	12	8½
	L.37,842,421	2	8

CHARGES OF COLLECTION.

Excise -	L.556,478	15	3½
Customs	492,400	19	5½
Land and Asess. Taxes	217,644	7	8
Stamps	107,237	17	4½
Post Office	264,781	13	8½
	L.1,638,543	9	5½

THE

Monthly Register,

FOR OCTOBER 1804.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

FRANCE.

Celebration of the 14th of July 1804.

LEGION OF HONOUR.

IT will be recollected that the 14th of July 1789 was the memorable day on which the first act towards the French Revolution took place, viz. the destruction of the Bastile of Paris by the populace, (attended with many shocking and cruel excesses;)—that the French Republic have from that day dated its *æra of Liberty and Equality*;—and that the anniversary has been always commemorated in the *Champs Elysées* with great Republican enthusiasm,—the constituted authorities, as they are termed, whether as a Convention, as a

sembly, Senate, Directory, or Consulate, with all the Ministers, and interior Officers of the Republic, and the whole citizens of Paris, always attending, and swearing *eternal hatred to Kings*, and to live or perish with the Republic.—In 1792, the popular hatred of the Nobility, and of all the higher ranks, rose to such a pitch, that great numbers of the Nobles and Knights, in order to conciliate the populace, brought in their patents, and decorations of their respective orders, and burnt them in the courts of the Thuilleries, amidst shouts of applause. Many Lords and Ladies of the Court were inhumanly massacred, for the unpardonable offence against the Republic, of holding offices in the Royal Household.—The following description of the last celebration of this anniversary, exhibits such a striking contrast to all that have preceded it, as to be hardly credible, did we not find it inserted by *imperial* authority in the official Paris papers, the *Moniteur* and *Gazette de France*.—The cunning Italian has contrived to make a complete counter-revolution in the stern notions of the French republican; and finding the natural inclination of his new subjects for glitter and show still to predominate, he has gratified it to the full, by rendering this extraordinary spectacle as imposing as the human fancy could suggest.

PARIS, *July* 16.

Yesterday (being the 26th of Messidor,) the anniversary of the 14th of July, all the members of the Legion of Honour who were in Paris solemnly took the oath prescribed in presence of the Emperor.—At 6 in the morning the ceremony was announced by a salute of artillery. The troops composing the garrison of Paris having repaired at ten o'clock to the Place de Carousel, filed off before his Majesty, and formed a line from his Palace to the Invalids.

Before noon, her Majesty the Empress set out from the palace, and crossed the garden of the Thuilleries between the lines of troops. Her retinue consisted of four carriages, one with eight horses, and three with six. The Empress was accompanied in her coach by the Princesses, the sisters and sisters-in law of his Majesty the Emperor. The other carriages were filled by the ladies of the palace, the chamberlain and the first ecuyer. The troops presented arms. The Governor of the Invalids, and the Grand Master of the Ceremonies, met her Majesty at the grand portico, and conducted her to the decorated tribune that had been erected for her in front of the throne.

At noon, his Majesty the Emperor, under a discharge of a salute of artillery, set out on horseback from the palace, preceded by the Marshals of the Empire, and followed by the Colonels-General of his guard, and the Great Officers of the Crown, his Aides-de-Camp, and the Staff of the Palace.—The procession was opened by chasseurs, and closed by the horse grenadiers of the Imperial Guard. Numerous discharges of the cannon of the invalids announced the arrival of his Majesty. The Governor of the invalids came without the gate to receive his Majesty, and to present him the keys of the Hotel. The Grand Dignitaries, the Ministers, and Great Officers of the Empire, who did not come on horseback, as also the members of the Great Council, the Grand Chancellor, and Grand Treasurer of the Legion of Honour, met at the same place, and took their stations in the procession.

The Cardinal Archbishop of Paris, with his clergy, received his Majesty at the door of the church, and presented to him the incense and holy water. The clergy in procession conducted his Majesty under a canopy to the Imperial throne, to the music of a military march, and amidst the loudest acclamations. His Majesty was placed on the throne, having behind him the Colonels General of the Guard, the Governor of the Invalids, and the great Officers of the Crown. On the two sides and on the second step of the throne, were placed the Grand Dignitaries; on the lower, and to the right, the Ministers; to the left, the Marshals of the Empire; at the foot of the steps of the throne, the Grand Master, and the Master of the ceremonies; in the front of the Grand Master, the Grand Chancellor and the Grand Treasurer of the Legion of Honour. The Aides-de-Camp of the Emperor were standing in a line on the steps of the throne. On the right of the altar, the Cardinal Legate was placed under a canopy, and in an arm chair, which had been prepared for him. To the left of the altar was the Cardinal Archbishop of Paris, with

his

his clergy. Behind the altar, in an immense amphitheatre, were arranged 700 invalids, and 200 young pupils of the polytechnic school. All the nave was occupied by the Great Officers, Commanders, Officers, and Members of the Legion of Honour.

The Grand Master of the Ceremonies having received the command of his Majesty, invited the Cardinal Legate to officiate, and his Eminence began the celebration of the mass.

After the gospel, the Grand Master of the Ceremonies, having received the orders of his Majesty, conducted to the steps of the throne the Grand Chancellor of the Legion of Honour, who pronounced an eloquent discourse on the events of this day, on the miseries of political troubles, and on the gratitude due to the hero, who, while he preserved the principles upon which the revolution had commenced, had been able to terminate the calamities which followed it. The orator pointed out, in a striking manner, the duties which the institution of the Legion of Honour imposed on all its members, and forcibly displayed the numerous advantages which must result from this union of the most illustrious supporters of the Government and of the Country.

After this discourse, the Great Officers of the Legion, being called successively by the Grand Chancellor, approached the throne, and individually took the prescribed oath. The Great Officers having taken the oath, the Emperor covered himself, and addressing the Commanders, Officers and Legionaries, pronounced, in a strong and animated voice, these words:—

"Commanders, Officers, Legionaries, Citizens, and Soldiers, you swear by your honour to devote yourselves to the service of the Empire, to the preservation of its territory in its integrity, to the defence of the Emperor, of the laws of the Republic, and the property which they have consecrated; to combat by all the means which justice, reason, and the laws authorise, every enterprize which shall tend to restore the feodal regime. In fine, you swear to concur with all your power to the maintenance of liberty and equality, the first bases of our constitution."

All the members of the Legion of Honour, standing, and with their hands raised, repeated at once, "*I swear it.*" The shouts of "*Vive l'Empereur*" were then renewed on all sides. These last words, pronounced with the accent of a profound energy, impressed the minds of all present with a lively emotion. It is difficult to describe the sensation which this moment produced. The monuments of French glory suspended in the vaults of the nave, in which were assembled the bravest warriors, the numerous ranks of aged and wounded soldiers, and the youth representing the glory and hope of their country; lastly, the religious solemnity of the altars, concurred most powerfully to exalt the imagination, and to give presage of the most glorious duration to an institution formed under such auspices.

Mass being ended, the decorations of the Legion were deposited at the foot of the throne, in golden basons.

M. de Segur, the Grand Master of the ceremonies, then took the two decorations of the Order, and gave them to M. de Talleyrand, the Grand Chamberlain. The latter presented them to his Imperial Highness Monseigneur Prince Louis, who attached them to the habit of his Majesty. New shouts of "Vive l'Empereur" were then often repeated. The Grand Chancellor of the Legion invited the great officers to approach the throne, to receive successively from the hands of his Majesty the decorations, which the Grand Master of the ceremonies presented to him on a golden plate. The Grand Chancellor then called the Commanders, afterwards the Officers, and lastly the Legionaries, who all came to the foot of the throne to receive individually the decorations from the hand of the Emperor.

His Majesty particularly fixed his attention on those brave veterans whose glorious services were attested by their mutilations. He interrogated many of them relative to the places and actions in which they had received those noble wounds.

This assemblage of the most distinguished citizens of all classes and all ages, presented a spectacle equally noble and affecting: the Soldier, the General, the Pontiff, the Magistrate, the Administrator, the Man of Letters, the celebrated Artists, receiving each the rewards of his talents, and his labour, seemed only to compose one family, which pressed around the throne of a hero, to support it. A lively and profound

found emotion was visible in every countenance; and this august and brilliant ceremony impressed the minds of all present with a reverence at once religious and martial.

This *fete* was terminated by Te Deum, which as well as the mass, was the composition of M. le Sueur, the Director of the Imperial Chapel.

At three o'clock his Imperial Majesty, under the discharge of a salute of artillery, left the church with the same retinue, and in the same order in which he had arrived. The return of her Imperial Majesty the Empress, was likewise made in the same order. Their Majesties, in all the places through which they passed, were saluted with the unanimous acclamations of an immense concourse of spectators. A salute of artillery announced the re-entrance of the Emperor into the palace of the Thuilleries.

The Emperor was dressed, according to his custom, in the most simple manner, viz. the uniform of his guard. The head-dresses of the Princesses were rich diadems; that of the Empress was entirely composed of diamonds. The amusements of the evening concluded the festival in a very agreeable manner. The palace, the garden of the Thuilleries, and the public edifices, were splendidly illuminated. At nine in the evening a concert was performed by a numerous orchestra, and the artists of the Conservatory were placed on one of the terraces of the Imperial Palace. The Emperor remained, during the whole concert, seated near the great window of the principal building. In the intervals the people manifested their joy by applauses and shouts of "Vive L'Empereur!" When the concert was ended, their Majesties, holding each other by the hand, approached to the edge of the terrace, when they bowed to the public, to testify how much they were sensible of the acclamations and testimonies of affection of which they had been the object.

SWEDEN AND FRANCE.

We have already noticed the decided part which the King of Sweden has taken at the Diet of Ratisbon, in support of the Russian Notes relative to the invasion of the Elector of Baden's territory by the French troops, and likewise to their unjust occupation of the Electorate of Hanover. His Majesty has been on a tour through Germany for many months, endeavouring to rouse the Electors and Princes to a proper sense of their dignity.—He staid a considerable time at the Court of Munich, and with the Elector of Baden his father-in-law.—In consequence, it is said, of a positive and even menacing order from the new Sovereign of France to the latter Prince, his Majesty suddenly left Carlsruhe, and went to Stralsund in Pomerania.

The following observations are inserted in the official paper (the *Moniteur*) of the French Government of the 14th August, under the head of *Ratisbon*, and are, no doubt, intended to convey to all the powers of Europe, its sentiments with respect to the conduct of his Swedish Majesty. They are preceded by three Notes of that Sovereign, which seem to have been inserted merely to afford the writer in the *Moniteur* an opportunity of commenting upon the conduct of the King of Sweden, in his quality of member of the Germanic Body. The first note relates to a proposition made by that Prince so far back as the month of May 1801, to the Diet at Ratisbon, to erect a statue to the Archduke Charles. The second, presented in January, complains of the conduct of some of the Princes of the Empire as tending to trench upon the authority of the Emperor, who, by the Germanic Constitution, was the legitimate head of it. The last Note delivered towards the middle of last May, refers to the Note previously presented by Russia, relative to the Duke D'Enghien.

Ratisbon, August 2.

"We have read the strange declarations which the King of Sweden has addressed to the Diet of Ratisbon.

"Nothing could be more striking, than the inconsistency of those steps on the part of the Swedish Monarch, if the stamp of folly, which is impressed upon them, did not strike more forcibly.—What! Whilst Poland has been divided under your eyes; whilst the enfeebled Ottoman Empire exists no longer than the Powers bordering upon your states will permit; whilst France, by shutting her ports against the ships of your nation, can so essentially injure your commerce—without provocation, without

without any motive to induce you to it, you delight in offering her daily insults.

"When Gustavus was successful in the thirty years war, it was with the assistance of France, and with that force of genius and inclination, which characterizes all the measures of a great man. Poland was then respectable; Turkey existed in all her vigour; and Russia had not yet any existence in Europe.

"But by what right, and with what views, do you excite the Germanic Body against France?—When Germany was engaged in a disastrous war, through the instigation of Sweden, you were the first to make your peace, and you sent Ambassadors to reside in Paris. During every crisis, the Germanic Body heard nothing of you; but peace was hardly concluded, when you resolved to shew that you were still in being, and you demanded that a statue should be erected to Prince Charles.

"This Prince had acquired glory, and the esteem of Germany; France is the first to acknowledge it. But is it with your troops that he has acquired it? If you are a member of the Empire, why did you not succour it with your army? If you are one of the guarantees of the treaty of Westphalia, why did you make your peace before the German empire made theirs?

"How does it happen, that you are the only power that does not feel how disagreeable your proceedings at Ratisbon are, even to the Germanic Body itself? Whilst you sell your cities, you engage in a fantastic discussion of concerns in Germany; whilst you enjoy hospitality at Baden, you insult your father in-law. There has not been a day of your residence at Carlsruhe, in which you have not given just cause of complaint to that Prince. At last, during your abode with your brother-in law, the Elector of Bavaria, you sign and date from Munich, a note contrary to his interests. This Prince was then weakened by the war; he was surrounded by armies; he was on the point of being invaded; he would have wanted your assistance, if your arm could have given him any; and it is at that moment, and in the very heart of his capital, that you write against him.

"You are yet young; but when you shall have attained the age of maturity, if you read the notes which you issue as impromptus when travelling post, you will sorely repent of not having followed the advice of your experienced and faithful Ministers: you will regard only the welfare of your subjects, and the good of your country: what it has done for you and for your ancestors, requires that you should not sacrifice its interest to vain and irregular passions. You will attempt no more than you can perform; and you will not drive the Germanic Body into a war, to the success of which you could contribute nothing, and in which your father-in-law and brother-in-law would probably make a common cause with France.

"And then, if the interest of the Baltic induces you to unite with Denmark, you will feel that this interest is truly yours; that it is connected with the safety of your States, with the dignity of your crown, and the glory of your nation. You would have taken your precautions, so as not to have left your coast unprotected, or to have suffered an enemy's fleet to pass with impunity, within half a cannon shot of your shores, to bombard Copenhagen. It is not by such trophies that your ancestors acquired glory, and adorned the page of history. In short, you will not make, from the inducement of a pitiful subsidy, what no nation in Europe has yet made, a treaty so unworthy of your rank, as to be nearly tantamount to an abdication of your sovereignty.

"We really think that if you read this advice, it will be lost upon you; but we believe, at the same time, that you will not receive any other lesson from France. She is very indifferent to all your steps; indeed she does not call you to account for your conduct, because she cannot confound a loyal and brave nation, and a people, who, being her faithful allies for centuries, were justly called the French of the North; nay, she does not confound them with a young man led astray by false notions, and unenlightened by reflection.

"Your countrymen will be always well treated by France; your merchants' ships will be well received by her; even your squadrons, if they are in want, will be victualled in her ports; she will see in your flags none but the ensigns of Gustavus, who reigned before you; and when the fire of your passion is extinguished, when you shall have learnt the true situation of Europe, and appre-

appreciated your own, France will be always ready to regard the true interest of your nation, and to shut her eyes upon what you have been, or what you shall have done."

Though the above petulant and insulting composition bears the date of *Ratisbon*, it is evidently manufactured in one of the French *bureaus*, and its appearance in the official journal confirms the supposition that the publication is authorized by that government. But whether this be the case or not, his Swedish Majesty seems disposed to resent the insult, and has ordered the following Notes to be published in the Stockholm Gazette.

STATE PAPERS.

Note, transmitted by order of his Swedish Majesty to M. Caillard, the French Charge d'Affaires at Stockholm, Sept. 7. 1804.

"His Majesty the King of Sweden, has received a report of the improper, the insolent, and the ridiculous observations which Monsieur Napoleon Bonaparte has allowed to be inserted in the Moniteur of the 14th of August, under the article Ratisbon.

"The tone, the style, and even the subject of this article, are all of so extraordinary a nature, that his Majesty has been yet hardly able to comprehend the object of such an act of political extravagance. If it has been done in the hope of misleading the public as to the conduct of his Majesty, as it appears from the uncommon pains that are taken to draw a line of separation between his Majesty and his subjects, let the world understand, that any instigation to that effect never could have been less likely to succeed than at this moment, or than it always will, with a people whose interests are bound up with those of a Sovereign, who has never separated his prosperity from theirs, and who never feels so happy as when he contributes to the glory and to the happiness of his subjects.

"As his Majesty cannot, consistent with his own dignity, or the honour of his crown, permit any official intercourse after such an insult, he has ordered me, Sir, to communicate to you, that, from this day, all diplomatic intercourse of every kind, both private and public, shall immediately cease between the French Legation at Stockholm and his Majesty's Government.

"As a sentence in the above-mentioned article seems to imply, that the French Government is disposed to admit that the continuance of the commercial intercourse between Sweden and France would be attended with some advantages, his Majesty, on his part, is willing to permit the same, from those sentiments of esteem which he has always entertained for the French people; sentiments which he has inherited from his ancestors, and which owe their origin to far happier times.

(Signed) T. D. EHRENHEIM."

Stockholm, Sept. 11.

The following document from our Court Chancellor, appeared here on the 7th instant:—

"His Majesty the King has been pleased to inform me, by his gracious letter of the 26th of August, that for a long time the prevalent tone of most French journals and daily papers has been marked by a want of due respect for Kings and Princes, and for every lawful Government; that this insolence, so worthy of chastisement, has continued to encrease, and the consequences thereof have lately appeared in one of the newspapers most generally known, which has dared to insert expressions, attacking the King's exalted person, and consequently the dignity of the empire; and as this cannot be passed over without animadversion, his Majesty has been pleased to order,

"1. That from the hour when this notification is made public, the importation into the Swedish Empire, and the provinces belonging thereto, of French journals, weekly magazines, and daily papers, is strictly prohibited; and that no exception can be granted or demanded.

"2. That all importation of Books and writings, which may be printed in France in future, is likewise prohibited; those, however, which have already appeared, are not included, provided their contents be not contrary to the regulations of the ordinances still in force; but with respect to French books which may be published in future, exceptions may be admitted, if an humble request be made for the purpose through the office of the King's Court of Chancery.

"In

"In consequence whereof, I am required to publish this gracious command and ordinance of his Majesty the King, that all people may conform themselves thereto.

(*Ex Officio*) "C. B. ZIBET.
"A. D. HUMEL."

"*Stockholm, Sept.* 7. 1804.

In consequence of the above notice, M. Caillard and his Secretary, M. Fenelon, quitted Stockholm in eight days after.—They arrived at Hamburgh the 5th of October.—Caillard proceeded to Paris direct, but Fenelon had instructions to go to Berlin.—M. Ackerblad, the Swedish Envoy at Paris, received his passports on the 16th September, and left that city the same day, and according to his instructions set out for Stralsund, where, by the last accounts his Swedish Majesty still remained, and from whence he had dispatched Messengers to the Courts of St Petersburgh and Berlin. His Majesty had also ordered all the fortifications of that place to be completely repaired and strengthened, and the garrison to be reinforced by 6000 troops from Sweden. From the cordial co-operation of these two northern powers, in all the proceedings at the Diet of Ratisbon, there seems little doubt that the Emperor of Russia will afford Sweden every assistance.

Letters from Hamburgh state, that the spirited note of the King of Sweden to the French *Charge d'Affaires* at Stockholm, has excited such a rage in Bonaparte, that, in the presence of several German Princes at Mentz, he declared in the most violent expressions, "that the Swedish Monarch should not, in twelve months, remain a Member of the German Empire; and that the province of Swedish Pomerania, which gives him a vote at Ratisbon, should in a short time change its Sovereign; and if the King of Prussia would not make arrangements to incorporate it with the Prussian Pomerania, he, Bonaparte, should himself create and support another Duke of Pomerania *ulterior*."—These and similar expressions he made use of in the presence of all the German Princes, and of the Members of the Diplomatic Corps.

The Prussian Charge d'Affaires to the Imperial city of Frankfort, who, with others, heard it, sent a courier to his Court with these particulars.

RUSSIA AND FRANCE.

The Emperor of Russia finding that his notes to the Diet of Ratisbon were only supported by the Swedish and Hanoverian Legations, sent instructions to M. d' Oubril (his Charge d'Affaires at Paris, after the departure of Count Markoff,) to make a direct application to the French Government, in his own name, for a satisfactory and categorical answer to the Notes he had presented to the Diet. M. d' Oubril, about the 21st of July, accordingly gave in a declaration to M. Talleyrand, requiring, in direct terms, the evacuation of Hanover and Naples by the French troops, and an indemnification to the King of Sardinia for the loss of his Italian territory, according to the treaty of Luneville. The French Minister apologized that no immediate answer could be given till his *Imperial Majesty's* return from his tour to the coast. After repeated applications and evasive apologies from Talleyrand, M. d' Oubril at length received an answer, couched in the most insolent and contemptuous terms.

"After stating that France will not be dictated to by any Power upon earth, Bonaparte asks, why, if the Emperor be desirous of war, he does not at once openly declare his sentiments? why he does not commence and justify hostilities in some manly way, rather than have recourse to the flimsy artifice of demanding satisfaction for the violation of the neutrality of Germany, by the seizure, and what the assassin styles, the pretended murder of the Duke D'Enghien. These flagitious principles Bonaparte proceeds to justify, and then insultingly asks, whether the Emperor of Russia would not have acted in the same manner under similar circumstances? He concludes with a remark, "that it could not be supposed that a Monarch who felt such a lively interest on this occasion, would not, if the murderers of his father (the Emperor Paul) were within his reach, use every effort to bring them to justice."

M. d'Oubril, according to his instructions, demanded his passports, and left Paris on the 30th of August, but stopt about three weeks at Mentz, by order of the French Emperor, till it was learnt that the French Legation at St Petersburgh had passed the Russian frontier. About the end of September

D'Oubril

D'Oubril got leave to set out for Russia, when Talleyrand told him, "that "it was his master's fault that peace had "been broken between them;—that "the Emperor (Bonaparte) did not "wish to go to war; but that it had "been forced upon him, and that Rus-"sia could do no harm to France."

It appears that the Emperor of Russia has been more peremptory in bringing this business to a speedy termination, from the circumstance of numbers of French emissaries having been active for some months, in circulating at the different Courts of Europe various papers (similar to that against the King of Sweden,) containing severe personal reflections against the Emperor, with a view to excite a jealousy in the Continental Powers of the politics of Russia.

Besides, that the spirit of intrigue, which conspicuously distinguishes the French character, has been more openly exerted upon this occasion at the Prussian Court, is proved from the following letter from *Berlin*, dated September 26th.

"To embroil the continent, or to force it to make common cause with him against England, has been the constant endeavour of Bonaparte and his Diplomatic Emissary, La Foret, ever since our Court acknowledged him a revolutionary Emperor, and Russia attested the rights of nations and of humanity, by resenting the invasion of Germany, and the murder of the Duke of Enghien. The most seducing offers have been made both here and at Vienna to form a defensive alliance with France, merely, as Bonaparte said, to oblige Russia, not to disturb the peace of the Continent; but neither the letters of Bonaparte, nor the intreaties, or intrigues of La Foret, could change the determination of our King to form any connection which may risk him a party in a war. As a last effort, Bonaparte sent him ci-devant Count D'Arberg, his favourite and confidential intriguer, and an Officer of his Staff, with a *carte blanche*. The guaranty of the Electorate of Hanover to the King's brother, Prince Henrig, lately betrothed to a Danish Princess, is said to be what D'Arberg has offered. The frequent conferences both between the French agent here, and our Minister of State, and between the Marquis Lucchesini and Talleyrand, in France, could not escape the suspicion of the English and Russian Ministers here, that something was negociating contrary to the interest of their Sovereigns, and that they had therefore first a conference with Baron Hardenberg, and afterwards with the King, in which they were informed, "that hitherto nothing had occurred in Europe to convince his Majesty either of the policy or necessity of changing the system of neutrality to which his Majesty had adhered from the beginning of his reign." This political disappointment no doubt hurt the pride of the Corsican, who, with his and Talleyrand's usual adroitness, have, by emissaries, published in Continental papers, that it was Russia and England, and not France, that tempted to seduce Prussia from her neutrality, but had been disappointed."

The influence of the French at the Ottoman Court has been more successful, from its natural jealousy of the Russian power: Accounts from Constantinople give the following particulars.

Immediately after the occupation of the kingdom of Naples by the troops of Bonaparte, the Emperor of Russia determined to send a sufficient number of ships and soldiers to defend Sicily, the Morea, and the Seven Islands, against the attempts and plots of France. By treaties with the Sublime Porte, a free passage thro' the Dardanelles is secured to Russia, while at peace with the Turkish Empire. Last February, however, immediately after the arrival of the first Russian convoy, with four frigates, General Brune presented a strong note to the Divan, protesting against the passage of any more Russian troops or men of war from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean. He was supported in this by the Spanish and Batavian Ministers. This note was presented to Count Italinski, the Russian Ambassador, who sent off to his Court for instructions; but insisted upon the observance of the treaties in this particular, until he should receive an answer. In the mean time, another Russian convoy passed, unmolested, for the Seven Islands. Brune then tried by his emissaries, to work upon the national prejudices of the Turks against the Russians, and the people of Constantinople began to murmur at the distinguished reception given to the Russian General, Baron Sprengporten, and several Russian officers of rank, by the members of the

Divan,

Divan. The intrigues did not, however, stop here.——Russian subjects were insulted, and some even murdered, by a Turkish mob, headed and instigated by persons known to be partizans of France, and in the pay of Brune; and, though some of them were punished for their crimes, the most guilty took shelter in the hotel of the French Minister, who assisted their secret escape from the Turkish capital. In the mean time the crews of the Russian men of war, and the troops on board the transports, were not permitted to land. Even those whose health required a residence on shore were refused that indulgence. In this interval, Count Italinski received instructions from Petersburgh, and had an audience of the Grand Vizier, at which he demanded whether any obstacles were to be expected by the ships of his nation, in their pasage through the Dardanelles? and insisted upon an explicit answer. Upon this subject, he received the following official declaration:—"That as long as the Emperor should be at peace with all the powers of Europe, the passage should remain open to him; but, in case he should be engaged in war with any of these powers, the Sublime Porte, in conformity with that system of neutrality which it was determined to preserve, could not any longer permit Russian men of war to pass the Dardanelles, either from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean, or from the Mediterranean to the Black Sea." This declaration satisfied neither the Russian nor the French Ambassador.

The Emperor of Russia has taken up the pen to vindicate himself against the aspersions of the French emissaries, and has circulated a long paper on the Continent, where it has created a great sensation, and from which we can only give a few passages.

"There is no reason why the formation of an army of 5 or 6000 Russians, in the Republic of the Seven Islands, should give rise to so much political conjecture. Such a measure is a very inferior part of that general system which Russia thinks it incumbent on her to follow at this moment.

"It must be acknowledged, morally speaking, that it is to France that Russia is indebted for the brilliant situation she now occupies, and which may be dated from the commencement of that system of tyranny and injustice which France has established; a system of invasion, of rapine, and of oppression, which has been exercised wherever its power could reach; and above all, since it became apparent, that its ambitious views were directed to no less an object than the attainment of Universal Monarchy. Since that time, Russia has become the shield of the weak, and has assumed the character of the protector of empires. Can France compel her to lay aside this dignified character? Let her not deceive herself in imagining she can.—Russia is not in the situation of an actor, who puts on the purple to play the part of a King; she is not an upstart, who appears what she really is not; the attitude of the lion befits her, because she possesses both his force and his dignity: she is a Collossal power of the most formidable description.

"Whether Russia will unite herself to Prussia or to Austria, whether she attaches herself to England, or stands alone, she must always be respectable, as long as she shall follow a system of justice; and confident in her strength, she shall openly resist a plan of universal despotism, and lay open to the world the violation of rights the most sacred; which has been so well described in the strong but temperate note which was presented at Ratisbon.

"Russia, it must be admitted, can never be a considerable gainer by indulging a desire of conquest.—She is extensive enough already; her boundaries are such, that she need not wish for any alteration in them; but she may be a gainer, and so may Europe, by the consequences of any war that the plain dealing and foresight of her Sovereign may induce him to declare.

"Alexander is naturally of a mild and amiable disposition, but in whatever concerns the principles of justice, he is decided almost to obstinacy.

"What is the great danger to which a war with France would expose the Russian Empire? It does not follow that the Russian army is to march to Paris. No; nor can the French reach Petersburgh, Moscow, or the Crimea, since they are not able to detach a single ship, the whole of their navy being blockaded and confined to their ports. As to battles and marches, brave as the French are, they are but men like o-

thers!

thers: they cannot exceed the limits which the laws of nature have placed to human efforts.

"Will the commerce of Russia be affected by a rupture with France? Certainly not; for with what article does she supply that country? none directly. What does she import from thence? Articles of luxury, which are prohibited.

"Will it be asserted that France could do infinite mischief to Russia, by the troubles that her emissaries could excite in the interior of the country? Of all the errors in political calculation, this would be one of the grossest. The people of Russia are those which approach nearest to a state of nature, except the savages; and they are the only people in the universe who neither know how to read or write; but still they are not Barbarians. They know no Government but their own, which they fear and respect. They have no other civilization than the practical one which their Sovereigns thought it useful and necessary to introduce. Masons, carpenters, joiners, locksmiths, armourers, and artisans of all sorts, and all excellent in their kind, are to be found in Russia in abundance, and still they know not how to read or write.

"After this description, let the emissaries of France attempt to excite divisions in that country, and they will find that the Government with a single blast can eradicate them.

"The Russian force, at this moment paid and provided, and actually under arms, is even more than sufficient to encourage their Sovereign to declare war. It is said, that the military strength of this country is embattled on the Persian and Tartarian frontiers; quite the contrary. There are still 300,000 well disciplined and hardy troops between the Black Sea and the Baltic. One hundred thousand of such gallant and hardy men, if once landed in Italy, would not be so easily conquered as some of the French politicians are pleased to suppose. Let them only bring to their recollection the gallant atchievements of a handfull of Russians, who, in the last war, in one campaign, drove all Italy and Lombardy before them, and they will find that the most renowned French Generals were defeated one after another, and that even at Zurich, Russia gained admiration, notwithstanding the backwardness of her allies.

"All this serves to prove, that a declaration of war on the part of Russia against France, would be sufficiently formidable to encourage the German Empire, now crushed by the latter power, to occupy the troops of France, and by that means to afford an opportunity to Italy, to Swisserland, to Portugal, to Holland, and to Hanover, to shake off the Gallic yoke. As to the project of invading England, it is a mere chimera, which can never be successful; and even were it so, it must prove destructive to the rest of the world. England is at this moment at the point of elevation—she can never decline if she continues where she is, for higher she cannot be. But how can England, who only exists by her industry and her trade, preserve her situation, unless by upholding the balance of the world? It is then the obvious interest of Russia to assist England, who by its system should be friendly to all nations; and to repress France, the selfish principles of whose Government are inimical to the greater powers of Europe, and oppressive to the smaller."

Diet of Ratisbon.

The two important questions respecting the new title of the Emperor of Austria, and the violation of the German Empire, have been taken into consideration, and received such a decision as might have been expected from the present degraded state of Europe.

On the 27th of August, Baron Albini, the Directorial Minister, made the following opening with the entire adhesion of his Royal and Imperial Majesty:

"The declarations which have been communicated to the Diet by the Dictature, the 26th and 27th of last month, upon the inheritance of the Imperial dignity in the House of Austria, are generally known, and there is no doubt but they have been sent to the several Courts. The Directorial Minister has every reason to presume, that his Highness, the Elector arch-Chancellor, will take a lively interest in every thing that can contribute to the satisfaction of his Imperial Majesty, as Chief of the House of Austria, and that all the States of the Empire, according to the assurance

ance given in the pragmatic law delivered to the Diet, are equally disposed to manifest their sentiments."

The Directorial Minister then says, that as "there is now no particular object of deliberation, and as to his knowledge no further instructions were received relative to the Imperial Russian note, he should propose to decree the great vacation, which had hitherto been retarded, and to prolong it, on account of that delay, until the 11th of November."

All the Ministers present tacitly acceded to this proposition; and immediately after, the directory of the Imperial cities was informed of this decision of the two first colleges. The Baron de Peden, Minister of Brunswick Luneburg, set out on the 27th for his estates; he has commissioned the Baron de Globig, the Minister of Saxony, to hold his vote.

Frankfort, Sept. 8.

It is confirmed that the Baron Von Klupsel, the Russian Minister to the Diet of Ratisbon, has left that city. It is not expected that he will soon return. The friendly communications which were carried on so long between the Cabinet of Petersburgh and several Princes of the Empire, have suddenly ceased. This circumstance is attributed to their refusal at the Diet, to follow the instructions which the Russian Minister wished to give them upon the business of Offenbourg and Ettenheim.

The following is the last note presented to the Diet of Ratisbon by the Hanoverian Legation.

"His Britannic Majesty and Electoral Highness of Brunswick Luneburgh has learned, with the most grateful approbation, the concern with which his Majesty the Emperor of Russia has been pleased effectually to interest himself for the maintenance of the Law of Nations, of the peace of Luneville, and of the security of the German Empire, upon the occasion of the very strange and deplorable occurrences which have taken place, on the part of the French, in the Electoral Baden territory of the German Empire, and to give notice thereof to the Assembly of the Empire, by the note of his Legation at Ratisbon, of date 6th of May. As his Britannic Majesty and Electoral Highness of Brunswick Luneburgh does entirely agree with his Majesty the Emperor of Russia on this point, he does not hesitate, with all his votes at the Diet, to move, that his Imperial Russian Majesty may be requested, by a conclusum of the Empire, in his wisdom, to take such steps as may be requisite to procure adequate declarations of the French Government to the German Empire on these occurrences, satisfactory with respect to the past, and tranquillizing assurances for the future. And as the French Government has committed a much more important and dangerous violation of the law of nations, of the peace of Luneville, and of the security of the German Empire, by the hostile invasion last year, without any declaration of war, and continued occupation and severe oppression of his Majesty's German territories, to the most serious grievance of the Constitution and independence of the German Empire, his Majesty cannot avoid here to refer to those declarations which he has made to his Co-Estates, and to confirm the same in their contents."

SALE OF GERMAN ESTATES.

Bonaparte, after trying in vain to extort money for a third time from the Hanseatic towns, upon the security of Hanover, has changed his plan of plunder, and offered to give up, for certain sums, to the surrounding Princes and States, provinces, towns, and villages, as deposits and security for the sums advanced to France, which guarantees their possessions until the borrowed money is repaid. In this manner, the countries around Munster and Gottingen, with those two towns, in the vicinity of the Hessian territory, have been offered to the Elector of Hesse, as a deposit for a loan of one million of dollars. The Dukes of Brunswick and Mecklenburgh have been offered counties and towns in the vicinity of their Duchies, upon the same terms; and it is asserted as a fact, that for a loan of three millions of dollars, the King of Prussia has been offered, as a deposit, Hamburgh, Stade, and all the towns and villages on the left bank of the Elbe, from Hamburgh to the sea, besides a part of the interior of Hanover, contiguous to the Prussian dominions; France reserving for itself nothing, but

for the Fort Hameln, the town of Osnabruck, and the city of Hanover.

The only alienation of this kind that has actually taken place appears to be the county of Bentheim.—This county lies contiguous to Munster and Hanover, is very fertile, and has several wealthy towns.—It is about 40 miles long by 10 or 12 broad.—In 1753, Fred. Charles Philip, Count of Bentheim Steinfurth, having incurred considerable debts, mortgaged his county to the Duke of Brunswick Lunenburg, (George II. of England,) from whom he received a very large sum, and who undertook likewise to discharge his the count's debts, which sums were all to be repaid in 30 years, and the mortgage discharged. No part, or but a small one, of this debt has been repaid, and the present Count Lewis of Bentheim has seized the opportunity of making a bargain with the necessitous Government of France, and by paying about 30,000l. has thus obtained possession of the county.—Against this dishonourable transaction his Britannic Majesty entered a strong protest at the late diet of Ratisbon.

The Count of Bentheim was put in possession of his county on the 16th of July, by several French aides-de-camp, sent from Hanover. On their arrival at Bentheim, they summoned the members of the Electoral Hanoverian Regency, Diet, Chamber, &c. proclaimed the Count Lewis of Bentheim Steinfurth, and released all the officers and subjects of that county from their oath of allegiance, taken to the King of Great Britain, Elector of Brunswick Luneburg, as mortgagee. The Hanoverian electoral civil officers were then peremptorily ordered to deliver up, instantly, every document and act relative to the county of Bentheim, and to take an oath that they had not embezzled any such papers. The Counsellor Von Pestel (who, with the Receiver General Dieckman, and the Judge Buch, has already been put under arrest by the French Commissioners, as a measure of precaution, on account of the documents in their charge,) deemed himself bound to protest against these proceedings, with a reference to the electoral Hanoverian protest presented at Ratisbon: he peremptorily refused to give so much as his word of honour about the papers under his care, since he was not accountable to any but the King of Great Britain, his Sovereign.

The French Commissaries considered this declaration as a rebellious crime against the Imperial French Government, which had conquered Hanover. He was, in consequence, sent a prisoner to the head-quarters at Hanover. Several other Hanoverian Civil Officers refused acknowledging Count Lewis as their Sovereign, and were by the French Commissaries (who would suffer in the county no Electoral Hanoverian, but only county of Bentheim officers, ordered to quit the county, whereupon they submitted. The French Commissaries then took the assurances of the several towns and villages. On the 19th, they assembled the provincial states of the county, which shewed less hesitation in doing homage to the Count.

The Electoral arms were every where taken off, and replaced by those of the Count of Bentheim, who issued a placard to his new subjects, of which the following is a prominent passage:—

"We believe that we may depend upon the allegiance and love of our native subjects of the county of Bentheim; the more so, as we have, by six months personal stay at Paris, by restless exertions and indefatigable activity, entirely delivered them from impending total ruin, unavoidable misery, and destruction (since they were by the irrevocable decree of the Imperial French Government, doomed to experience a fate in every respect like to that of the unhappy forsaken inhabitants of the Electorate of Hanover,) and have, thanks to Divine Providence! actually delivered them, so that they might now enjoy perfect security, neutrality, and peace."

LOUIS XVIII. AND MONSIEUR.

On the 30th of July Louis and his Queen, with the Duke and Duchess of Angouleme, the Archbishop of Rheims, Duc de Pienne, Duc d'Havre de Croy, Marquis de Bonnay, Comte de Damas Crux, Comte Etienne de Damas, and the Abbe Edgeworth de Fermont, set out from Warsaw, for Grodno in Russia. The King of Sweden has offered Louis and his family the ancient castle of Calmar, in the province of Smalland, on the borders of the Baltic, for a residence, which invitation the

King

King has accepted, and arrived on his way thither at Riga on the 1st of September, from whence he proceeded immediately to Bolderas, a small port at the mouth of the Duna, and sailed on the 2d. in a Swedish vessel for Calmar.

A meeting of the branches of the Bourbon family is to take place in Sweden immediately, no doubt on very urgent business.—On the 17th September his Royal Highness Monsieur left London for Harwich, accompanied only by one gentleman, and a few servants, and embarked on board a sloop of war, which sailed with a fair wind for Gottenburgh on the 20th September.

A scene of a most atrocious nature, imminently threatning the life of the unfortunate Louis, it said to have been unfolded a few days before his departure; of which the following are the principal features. *Coulon*, a Frenchman who had been in the service of the Baron de Milleville, equerry to the Queen of France, had married a Polish woman, and lived in Warsaw, in great poverty, by keeping a billiard table. Two Frenchmen, who pretended to travel for their pleasure, arrived in that city, and frequently visited Coulon's table. They lived expensively, and affected to pity his indigence. About the middle of last month, they invited him to dine with them in the country; and after drinking freely, they proposed to enable him to live in comfort for the remainder of his life. Coulon was acquainted with the cook of Louis XVIII. They proposed he should call on the cook about the hour of preparing dinner, and throw two carrots into the soup making for the king's table. They said, he need not fear any punishment, as they were protected by the powerful arm of Bonaparte; and that all the Royal Family of France were surrounded by agents, by whose hands they were destined to die. Coulon affected to consent; and the next day they delivered the carrots to him. In the interval, he acquainted the Baron de Milleville with the plot, and it was laid before the King. M. De Hoyen, President of the Chamber and Governor of the Town, was informed of it; but, after many excuses, he declined even to arrest the two Frenchmen. A fruitless application was also made to the police-office. The King formally demanded, that the carrots should be opened and examined by some professional men, in the presence of the governor; but this also being declined by M. De Hoyen, the King ordered his physician, M. le Faire, aided by Dr Bergenzoni, the most eminent physician in Warsaw, and M. Guteil, an apothecary, to proceed to the investigation. At the top of the carrots was a paste, but coloured to look like their ordinary top. They were hollowed, and a powder, consisting of three sorts of arsenic, was found within each. M. de Tilly, the chief magistrate, refused to interfere, or apprehend the accused Frenchmen. The Comte de la Chapelle has been left by the King at Warsaw, to prosecute this mysterious affair before the criminal tribunal.

French Fleet in India.

In our last Magazine we gave a narrative of the gallant action betwixt the British China fleet under Commodore Dance, and a French squadron under Admiral Linois, near the Straits of Malacca, in which the latter was beat off. The extreme mortification and disappointment felt by the French in that quarter, at the unexpected result of this engagement, are unequivocally depicted in the following dispatches from Decaen, Governor of the Isle of France, to the Minister of the Colonies at Paris, dated 15th May:

"I have the honour to announce to you, that Rear-Admiral Linois arrived at the Isle of France the 1st of April, with the Marengo, the Semillante, and Le Berceau. This unexpected return naturally excited my surprize, particularly after what the Rear-Admiral had said to me, in a letter, dated Batavia, 16th December. After enumerating the naval forces of the English, he said, "As they have many points to guard, their forces must be necessarily much divided, and I hope to do them considerable mischief, by appearing rapidly in different parts of the Indian seas, at great distances from each other;" and in his postscript he added, "I have just completed six months provision at Batavia for the squadrons." I was so confident of his success, that, when signals were made for his squadron being in sight, I imagined the China fleet had been all captured. I even supposed the two other frigates, which were not present, had remained to escort the vessels which

which the Rear-Admiral had taken, and that he had come on before, to clear the way of the English cruizers. But I was deceived in my expectations; above all, when my Aid-de-Camp returned with a letter from the Rear-Admiral, which begins thus—"I cannot have the pleasure of seeing you until the ships of my squadron are under the protection of the batteries; and I beg you will give orders for our entering the port as soon as possible."

To this letter the Rear-Admiral added a detailed account of his cruize. I here insert an extract from it; after which you will judge whether it was not natural that I should express some astonishment the next day, when the Admiral and his Officers came to pay me a visit:

"On the 13th February at day-break they perceived 27 ships, which no doubt was the China convoy. The Rear-Admiral, profiting by a mist which concealed his manœuvres, collected his frigates, and kept the wind.

"On the 14th, at six in the morning, the enemy were within half gun shot: all the Captains expressed the most ardent desire to second the Admiral: the same ardour prevailed amongst the crews; and it was not without admiration that he saw some of the sick, then very numerous, quit their hammocks, to take their post in the action. At half past seven the enemy hoisted their colours; and the division likewise hoisted its colours. The Admiral could not discover its real force: twenty of its vessels appeared to be ships of two decks: he thought he recognized a frigate.

"At 8 the breeze having freshened, the fleet formed line. Eight or ten ships formed a double line. Scarcely was this manœuvre indicated, than five ships of the double line tacked and bore down upon the division. The plan of the Admiral was changed; and, in order to prevent being placed between two fires, he tacked, in order to meet the two first of the ships which had thus bore down upon him, and to attack them.

"At half past twelve the first shot was fired from the Marengo, and the engagement commenced.—The enemy's ship which was nearest experienced some damage, but, being supported, they formed anew, and kept up a very brisk fire. The ships which had bore down joined those which were combating the division, and three of those manœuvred to double the rear, whilst the rest of the fleet crowded sail, to surround the division.

"The enemy, by this manœuvre, had rendered the position of the Admiral very dangerous. The superiority of their force was discovered, and it only remained to deliberate how to avoid the *sad consequence* of an *unequal engagement*. The Admiral, profiting by the smoke which enveloped them, took a course to the E. N. E. and distanced the enemy, who continued to pursue for three hours.

"The Admiral remarked during the action, that six or eight vessels fired from two decks; and he does not doubt that they had a desire to be attacked, since it was not till the moment of the engagement that they shewed their first decks. The engagement lasted forty minutes: the enemy's shot did but slight damage to the ships of the division, and no person was wounded.

"This cruize offering no other advantage, the Admiral determined to sail for Batavia. The division was joined on the 21st by the Atalante, and on the 25th anchored in that road.

"Vice Admiral Hartzinck, commanding two ships and a frigate, from Europe, had also anchored there. But his limited instructions did not permit him to undertake any expedition against the enemy alongst with the Admiral.

"The Admiral, desirous of accelerating the sale of the prizes, the Admiral Raynier and the Henrietta, after having concerted with the captains of the division, accepted the proposition of the Shabendar, of purchasing, in gross, the two prizes, with their cargoes, for the sum of 133,000 piastres, exempt from all expences. The High Council of Regency, out of respect for its allies, consented to the exportation of this money on board the division."

The French dispatches likewise mention the arrival at the Isle of France of the Belle Poule and Atalante frigates on the 8th of May, with the Althea English extra Indiaman, outward bound, which they captured on the 17th of April, and which they value at 5,000,000 francs, (250,000l.) She was immediately condemned. This capture is unfortunately confirmed by a letter from Captain Miller of that ship to his owners, in London. The Althea was private property,

perty, and was consigned to an English mercantile house at Calcutta.

Immediately after the report of the Governor of the Isle de France, General Decaen, concerning Linois's conduct in the engagement with the English China fleet, had been laid before Bonaparte, at Aix-la-Chapelle, and he had given his permission for its insertion in the *Moniteur*, he ordered the Minister of the Marine Department, Decres, to write to Gen. Decaen, not only to suspend and deprive Linois of his command, but to arrest him, and send him home a prisoner with the first safe opportunity.—An American ship is said to have been already hired to carry out these orders; and, as soon as Linois arrives in France, he is to be tried by a Naval Military Commission. Of his fate little doubt remains, particularly as the ship, which carried to France Decaen's dispatches, brought one hundred thousand dollars belonging to Linois, which have been *borrowed* by the Imperial Treasury. Linois's own private report is to serve as evidence against him, and is, therefore, not published; but it is said to contain severe complaints against the Batavian Admiral Hartzink, for not co-operating with him, and against the Dutch Governors of the Cape of Good Hope and Batavia.

WEST INDIES.

Fire at Trinidad.

We have received a large packet of the Trinidad papers to the 9th of June, by which we learn, that immense damage has lately been sustained by a fire, which had extended itself nearly over half the cultivated part of the island. Several thousand hogsheads of sugar have been consumed. The following information on the subject is extracted from one of the papers of the 20th April:—

"A great many estates have been burnt in this island: The principal sufferers are Mess. Whitaker and Redhead at Point of Cedre; Mess. Boureau and Vance, in the quarter of Guapo; Dr Robertson, quarter of Separia; Mr Palmer and Mesdames Ponsis and Cach, in French Naparime; Messrs Whitmore and Langton, Caparachima quarter; Messrs Cruikshank and Taylour, Levant le quarter; Mr Townshend, Parea, Aricagua quarter; Messrs D. Parke and Cuineas, Maracas; together with a number of small estates on the mountains, extending from the Maracas to the Bocas.

"The real number of estates burnt cannot yet be ascertained, as the island has been on fire for these three weeks past; various reasons are given for the first cause. Some ascribe it to run-away and other evil disposed negroes; but, what is more probable, is the burning of cut down wood, having communicated with the forest wood. On Saturday morning the fire was so near the town of Port of Spain, as the valley of Sant Barbara, immediately behind Orange Grove Barracks. Some rain fell on Thursday, but had no effect. Great hopes are entertained of the wet season commencing. So long a continuance of dry weather has not been known here since the year 1782, when the whole island was in flames, from Point Cedre to Point Gallero, for the space of five weeks; but there being only very few estates settled at that time, comparatively speaking, to what are now, little damage was sustained."

The Trinidad Courant of the 5th May, adds Mr Legendre to the list of sufferers, and that 80 hogsheads of sugar, and most of the negro houses on his estate, were destroyed.

Subsequent papers mention two other sufferers, but do not afford any satisfactory account of the cause of the fire.

EGYPT.

Mahommed Elfi Bey.

It will be recollected, that Elfi Bey, the most wealthy and powerful of the Mameluke Chiefs, and who professed much attachment to the British interests in Egypt, came over from Alexandria in summer 1803, on a visit to England, accompanied by Lord Blantyre, his brother the Hon. Mr Stewart, and Col. Moore. He was treated in London with every mark of attention and respect. In December last he embarked on board the Argo man of war at Portsmouth to return to Egypt, with a large quantity of very rich presents, the productions of this country. We are extremely sorry to find from the subjoined accounts, that his character was of a very different complexion from what he professed, and that the honourable reception he experienced here was only to be repaid by treacherous hostility. A letter from on board the Argo, dated June

June 17th, after her return home from Egypt to Spithead, contains the following article:

"I have now the satisfaction to acquaint you of our arrival here, after a round turn of six months, last from Cadiz, with a freight of 500,000 dollars, on account of merchants in London. You will no doubt be surprised to hear of Elfi Bey's fate, after all the expence and attention cast away upon him at home.—Having landed himself and suite, on the 14th of February, at Rosetta, mouth of the Nile, to proceed up to Cairo, and in daily expectation of hearing of his arrival there, as also the receipt of the presents to be sent home, we were astonished to hear of his being pursued going up the Nile, by some of the other Beys, (and Albanian soldiers lately revolted from the Pacha of Alexandria) and very near losing his head, but effected his escape to an Arab encampment, by scattering some loose jewels that he had about his person among the soldiers, which took up the Barbarians' attention, long enough to serve for his purpose. This circumstance is less to be regretted, as he was very much in the French interest, which his people have declared on oath, since made prisoners; whose lives have been spared, at the particular request of Major Misset, our Consul at Cairo, by Osman Bey, the present Chief of the Mamelukes, a man very much in the British interest."

The following additional particulars respecting Elfi Bey are given in a letter from Malta, of date April 25th:—

"The Argo, Captain Hallowell, is just arrived here from Egypt, where he landed Elfi Bey, whose conduct at this place, on his return from England, has not conciliated an opinion in his favour. His extreme reverse of fortune, however, makes him, in some degree, an object of compassion. Returning from this place, he landed at Aboukir, and from thence proceeded to Cairo; but before he reached the latter place, he was attacked by a strong Mameluke party, who were posted to intercept him by Osman Bey. His immense baggage, and the valuable presents with which he was enriched, attracted the principal attention of his assailants, the plundering of which afforded him an opportunity of making his personal escape, in a small boat, across the Nile.—Upon his landing on the opposite side, he observed a camp of Bedouin Arabs, the chief of which was his mortal enemy, but, who fortunately for the fugitive Elfi, was absent with Osman Bey, for the express purpose of concerting a plan for the more certain destruction of Elfi Bey. On this discovery, he instantly threw himself on the mercy of these people, and demanded a horse of the Chief's wife, which was immediately granted him; for it is a sacred custom with the Bedouin Arabs to protect any stranger who throws himself on their mercy, at the hazard of their lives. On the Chief's return to the camp, and hearing how Elfi Bey had escaped, he applauded her conduct, and added, although he himself was anxious for his destruction, if she had violated the ancient usage of their race, he would have put her to death by his own dagger. The last accounts of the fugitive Elfi Bey, stated him to be wandering in Upper Egypt, endeavouring, if possible, to collect a force sufficient to meet Osman Bey in the desarts."

Ghezzar Pacha.

This aged Chieftain will be generally remembered from the very gallant and obstinate defence he made of his fortress of Acre in May 1799, supported by the British squadron under Sir Sidney Smith, against the desperate assaults of the French army commanded by Bonaparte himself, who was forced to retreat with immense loss both of men and artillery, and whose defeat at this place led to the final overthrow of the French expedition to Egypt. The following articles respecting this famous Pacha may be deemed worthy of notice.

The following is an extract of a letter, dated 18th April 1804, to H. Lovat, Esq. at Bussora:—

"In consequence of hostilities, Alexandria has not been given up to the Mamelukes, and the Porte has lately conferred on Ghezzar, Pacha of Acre, the title of Generalissimo of Egypt, and has issued his sublime orders, that he should forthwith march with a sufficient force to reduce that province to subjection. It is however, certain, that Ghezzar knows too well the difficulties attending such a project to think of wasting his means by putting it into execution; and surely now, there cannot a hope

hope exist, that tranquillity can be restored in Egypt, but by the return of a British force; an event, that, I am persuaded, is ardently desired and expected by all descriptions of people in that wretched country. The Thibse frigate, with Mr Lock, was daily expected at Alexandria."

A letter from Aleppo, dated April 12. states as follows:—"The death of Ghezzar Pacha of Acre, was announced to the Governor of this city this morning, by two Cashoon Tartars (volunteer messengers,) by whose immediate departure for Constantinople I inform you of this. It will cause a great change in Syria. The Tartars came from Damascus here in three days: private letters by them state, that the populace of Damascus had deposed the Muzelim, Ghezzar's Lieutenant, and that the greatest degree of confusion reigned there, in consequence of the absence of the supreme authority of the Government. It is supposed he has been dead for some time, and that the person who held the Government concealed it. He was 87 years old."

ENGLAND.

Naval Operations.

Since the commencement of the war in May 1803, the principal military operations have taken place in the East and West Indies.—Our conquests in India, and the taking of St Lucia, Demerary, Essequibo, and Surinam, have already been recorded.—In Europe, excepting the seizure and plunder of Hanover, notwithstanding the reiterated threats of invasion from every port of France and Holland, no blow has yet been attempted to be struck, and only some unimportant skirmishings with the French flotillas stealing from one port to another on their own coast, have taken place. A short detail of some of these petty occurrences may be necessary.

Brest.—This is the principal port and arsenal of France, in which from 20 to 25 line of battle ships, and 12 large frigates, fully manned, and a large land army on board, have been reported ready to sail on the first signal, for many months past.—Admiral Cornwallis has, with wonderful perseverance, and almost without intermission, continued his cruize on this station for 17 months, with the channel fleet of from 15 to 20 ships of the line, and 10 frigates.—A division of the English fleet is stationed in shore as near to the passages of Brest harbour, as the dangers of this navigation, which are considerable, will permit.—This division likewise extends its cruizes towards l'Orient, Rochefort, and Rochelle, where it is said, five or six sail of the line and several frigates, have been long ready to make a push for Brest the first favourable opportunity.—Another division of seven ships of the line, presently under the command of Admiral Alexander Cochrane, has been for nearly as long a period, stationed off Ferrol and Corunna, in which ports five or six French and Dutch ships of the line have been blocked up.

The English fleet on these stations, under the orders of Admiral Cornwallis, consists of 35 large ships of the line, and 20 frigates, besides sloops and cutters.—In the face of such a force, it could not be expected that the enemy would venture out.—On the 1st of August, however, Admiral Gantheaume, with 6 ships of the line and 3 frigates, moved out from the outer road of Brest, to Camaret Bay, (a distance of about six miles from Brest harbour,) where he lay close under the batteries for six days, watching an opportunity of slipping past our fleet, to join Admiral Villeneuve, who had 4 sail of the line at Isle d'Aix, and to proceed together to intercept the great West India convoy then on its passage.—But several British frigates appearing constantly in sight, and fearing the main fleet too near for him to hazard the attempt, he returned in the evening of the 7th to the inner road. No intention of any movement since has been discovered, and though the French ships have the appearance of being in a very complete state, it is yet doubted if they be sufficiently manned.

On the 12th July, the Aigle frigate, Captain Wolfe, stationed to watch the enemy's motions at Rochefort, fell in with two of their corvettes, one of 20 guns and 104 men, the other of 8 (pierced for 14) guns and 57 men, which she drove on shore and totally destroyed near Bourdeaux. The crews escaped on shore, except 26 officers and men, which were taken off by the Aigle. They had on board the ordnance and stores

stores complete for a corvette just launched at Bayonne, and were to return from thence with stores for the French marine at Rochefort.

The very dangerous navigation of the west coast of France has however this year proved fatal to several British men of war.

In the month of February the Magnificent, Captain Jervis, a fine 74 gun ship, struck upon the Saints, and it running a high sea, went to pieces. The crew were saved by the other ships, except 1 Lieut. 3 marine officers, 2 midshipmen, and 57 seamen, who, by taking to the launch, with the utmost difficulty reached a small island called Vinigent.—After remaining about 50 hours without food, they were at length discovered from the shore, and five French vessels came off with a party of soldiers, and made them prisoners. They were marched to Brest, and from thence to Verdun in six weeks, being a journey of 750 miles.

About the 12th of May the Vincego sloop of war, Capt. Wright (Sir Sidney's Smith's Lieut. at the siege of Acre,) got ashore in a hard gale under a strong battery in Quiberon bay, and lost her keel, which rendered her so leaky as to require constant pumping.—In this situation, she was attacked by 17 brigs, luggers and boats, containing 36 guns and 1300 men, and after a dreadful engagement of two hours, in which the Vincego lost 40 of her men, and the French just alongside to board, Captain Wright was obliged to strike, to save the lives that remained. The Vincego's force was only 20 18 pound carronades, with 53 men and 17 boys.—Capt. Wright was wounded severely in the groin by a grape shot early in the action, but never quitted the deck.—The Captain was sent up to Brest, and the Prefect of the department learning who he was, transmitted him to Paris, where he is still confined in the Temple. He was examined on the trial of Gen. Moreau and the other conspirators.—*(See Mag. for July)*

Havre-de-Grace.—This is an inferior port in France, the depth of water admitting only ships of war of the lowest class. A considerable number of these, however, have been all this year preparing there, and Rear-Admiral Sir James Saumarez, with a strong squadron of frigates, cutters and bombs, has been stationed at Guernsey to watch the enemy's operations at this port. Several attacks have been made upon the town, and much damage done to it and to the shipping. The following account of the last bombardment on the 1st and 2d of August, is given in a letter from Captain Robert Dudley Oliver of the Melpomene frigate, acting as Commodore, to the Lords of the Admiralty, dated Havre, Aug. 2.

"The wind having changed yesterday to the N. E. I determined to make another attack on the numerous vessels in Havre Pier, as well as those which were moored outside, amounting to 28 brigs, and as many luggers, and stood in with the squadron. At half past 7 P. M. the bombs were well placed off the Pier Heads, when they began a well directed fire, which was kept up with great spirit for an hour and a half. The town was soon observed to be on fire in two places; and seven brigs which were on the outside of the Pier, found it necessary to move; one lost her mainmast. As the wind came more off the land, and a strong ebb tide setting out, I ordered the bombs to discontinue firing. At half past nine we anchored about five miles from the lighthouses. As the Explosion had fired away all her shells, and the Zebra most of her powder, I had them supplied from the Meteor; and at four this morning stood in with the squadron again. The bombs took up their position near the pier heads, and kept up a constant fire for three hours, with shells and cases; so many shells burst on and about the piers, that the enemy's fire slackened considerably, and it was evident they were in the greatest confusion; some brigs and luggers, however, came out to annoy the bombs, but the other ships of the squadron were so well placed as to give chace to them immediately; and it was only by cutting away their boats astern, and retreating into shoal water, that they escaped, but not before they had run the gauntlet of all the ships and cutters, and were very closely engaged for a considerable time by the Merlin, Favourite, Locust gun-brig, and Hope cutter. The Locust lost her main-topmast, but I have not heard of any other loss. The conduct of the Captains commanding the bombs was highly meritorious; and although their ships

were frequently struck, it gives me great pleasure to add that no lives are lost. What damage may be done to the enemy by near 500 shells and carcasses thrown into the town and bason last evening and this morning, it is impossible to calculate, but I may without vanity say, that if the exertions of the enemy's flotilla be not much greater on our shores than on their own, we have little to dread from them."

The British ships on this service consisted of the Melpomene, Ariadne, Trusty, Magnanime, Merlin, and Favourite; Hercules, Meteor, Explosion, and Zebra bombs; King George, Hope, Nancy, Countess of Elgin, and Locust cutters.

Boulogne.

This is the grand port, in which the most extensive preparations have been making for the threatened attack.

Those rumours of immediate invasion which have been so often conjured up, have been recently revived with circumstances that impress a more than usual sense of its really taking place. It is certain that the great number of vessels which have been consructing so long at Flushing, Ostend, and in the different French ports in the channel, have found their way to, and are concentered in the harbour of Boulogne, which has been so greatly enlarged as to contain at this time, it is said, no less than 1400 vessels of war of all descriptions.

Bonaparte has been lately for several weeks on the coast, to superintend and to quicken his preparations for the long meditated attempt.

The English fleet on this station, under the orders of Lord Keith, have accordingly been greatly reinforced, and consists of several divisions, amounting in ships of the line, frigates, sloops of war, cutters, bombs, fireships, and gun-vessels, to upwards of 70 in number. The commanders of these divisions have taken every opportunity to harrass the enemy's flotilla here both in the harbour, and on their first appearance out of it, even under their strong batteries, and have at different times done considerable damage to the French gunboats, with small loss on our part.

On the 27th of August, about 100 of the flotilla ventured out of the harbour to manœuvre. The wind blowing in shore, was unfavourable for the English fleet; but a division made sail towards it, and a general action commenced at half gun shot, when the tide falling, our division hauled off, and the enemy drew close under their batteries, and next tide re-entered the harbour. A large bomb from one of the batteries went through the bottom of the Constitution cutter, which sunk, and the crew were taken up by one of our frigates. It appears from the French accounts that the Emperor himself was present in this action.

Lafond, chief of the general staff of the Imperial flotilla, writes in the Moniteur as follows:

Speaking of the approach of the English division, he says, "At this moment, his Majesty the Emperor embarked in a boat with the Admiral, to direct more closely the movements of the flotilla. His Majesty was accompanied by the Ministers of War and Marine. The enemy at first stood off, but they soon resumed their line, and, tacking towards the land, came again to attack the right of the flotilla, at two-thirds cannon shot. This distance was soon diminished by an order of the Emperor to come to close quarters with the enemy. The Admiral made all the boats come at once into a close front line, steering towards the enemy. This movement brought the two lines within less than half cannon shot, and a very hot fire commenced between them. The enemy sustained it for two hours with great firmness; but it was all at once observed that the enemy's sloop of war, in consequence of signals which she made, was joined by a brig, which towed her out of action. The frigate herself tacked, abandoning the field of battle, and was followed by her division, entirely disabled. Our gun-boats and pinnaces pursued, cannonading her. The cutter was so roughly handled by our fire, that she sunk in the sight of an immense crowd, who had come to the coast to witness the combat. At this moment, the tide already very strong, and carrying the flotilla to leeward, the Admiral made the signal, and our vessels anchored in good order, in the posts they should occupy in the roads.

"His Majesty the Emperor, as well as the Admiral, remarked particularly the fine conduct of Ensigns Morin, Bourdon and Delancy, commanding pinnaces, all of whom re-conducted the English frigate to the anchoring ground of her squa-

squadron, cannonading her at a short distance. During the engagement the batteries kept up an equally hot and well directed fire on the enemy. Before going ashore, the Emperor visited a part of our line; he put various questions relative to the events of the combat to those who had taken part in it; and, finally, after going on board the gun boat No. 108, of which the deck had been split by a thirty-two pound ball, his Majesty disembarked in the port of Boulogne, and ascended to his head quarters at the Tour d'Ordre, where he passed the night."

The French Admiral acknowledges only one killed and 7 wounded, but they suffered greatly in their sails and hulls.

New-Invented Fireship.

An experiment has been lately made, to ascertain the practicability of destroying the enemy's flotilla in front of the harbour of Boulogne. It is by means of a vessel of a new and most ingenious construction, said to be the invention of Sir Home Popham. The experiment was made on the 1st of October, under the immediate direction of Lord Keith, and the result has been communicated by his Lordship in the following letter to the Admiralty. A more particular description of this curious machine, (which is called a *catamaran*) subjoined, as given in two private letters from officers actually employed in this hazardous service.

Lord Keith's Account.

Monarch, off Boulogne, Oct. 3.

Their Lordships are aware that my attention has, for some time past, been directed to the object of ascertaining the most effectual mode for annoying the enemy's flotilla at their anchorages in front of their ports, under protection of their land batteries.

Having, on the afternoon of the 1st inst. arrived at this anchorage, and finding the weather promising to be favourable, and about 150 of the flotilla on the outside of the pier, I resolved to make an experiment, on a limited scale, of the means of attack which had been provided.

The final arrangements for this purpose were made on the morning of yesterday. The officers put in charge of the principal vessels at this time to be used, were, Captains Macleod, of the Sulphur; Jackson, of the Autumn; Edwards, of the Fury; Collard, of the Railleur; Searle, of the Helder defence ship.—Lieutenants Stewart, of the Monarch; Lowry, of the Leopard; Payne, of the Immortalite; Templar, of the Sulphur.—Midshipman—Mr Bartholomew, of the Inflexible. Captains Winthrop, of the Ardent, and Owen of the Immortalite, most zealously and usefully superintended the operations from the southward, and the Hon. Captain Blackwood, of the Euryalus, from the northward. The armed launches, and other boats of the squadron, were appointed to accompany and protect them. The Castor, Greyhound, and some smaller vessels, were directed to take up an advanced and convenient anchorage for covering the retreat, giving protection to those men wounded, and boats crippled, and for towing off the boats in general, in the event of the wind freshening and blowing upon the coast.

The operation commenced at a quarter past nine o'clock last evening, and terminated at a quarter past four this morning, during which time several vessels, prepared for the purpose, were exploded amongst, or very close to the flotilla; but on account of the very great distance at which they lay from each other, no very extensive injury seems to have been sustained, although it is evident that there has been very considerable confusion among them, and that two of the brigs and several of the smaller vessels appear to be missing since yesterday at the close of day. I have great satisfaction in reporting, that notwithstanding a very heavy discharge of shells, shot, and musketry, was kept up by the enemy throughout the night, no casualty whatever, on our part, has been sustained. The enemy made no attempt to oppose their rowing boats to ours.

Their Lordships will not expect that, at the present moment, I am to enter much into detail; but I think it my duty to state to them my conviction, that, in the event of any great accumulation of the enemy's force in their roadsteads, an extensive and combined operation of a similar nature will hold forth a reasonable prospect of a successful result.

The conduct of the officers and men, who

who have been employed on this occasion, deserves my highest commendation. I cannot more forcibly impress their merits upon their Lordships' attention, than by remarking, that the service was undertaken, not only in the face of, but immediately under, the whole line of the enemy's land batteries, and their field artillery and musquetry upon the coast, but also under that of upwards of one hundred and fifty armed vessels, ranged round the inner side of the bay; and that the officers and men who could so deliberately and resolutely advance into the middle of the flotilla, under such circumstances, must be considered worthy of being entrusted with the performance of any service, however difficult and dangerous it may appear.

Private Account, by an Officer.

"I was last night an actor in one of the most awful scenes I ever saw. We took on board our ship at Portsmouth, a number of coffers or casks, larger than a butt, which were afterwards filled with gunpowder and other combustibles; and last night, with a number of other ships, an attempt was made on the French vessels off Boulogne. The boats of the ships were manned about seven o'clock, and the casks or coffers launched and taken in tow. We then assembled for orders on board the Immortalite. We soon afterwards pulled away in different directions, the French vessels extending a long way. We soon lost sight of the other boats; when we had approached the shore, the enemy began to make signals, and soon after some thousands were heard shouting upon the shore. But we still pulled for their vessels, our intention being to let our coffers drift on board them, and then explode.

"Each of the casks or coffers had what was called a clock affixed to it, which was so contrived as not to admit any water. This was primed and set, so as to go off at any desired time after drawing out a pin. A reward depended on bringing away this pin. We came within pistol-shot of a corvette before we let go our coffers, under a fire of shot and shells from the shore. The corvette then opened her broadside upon us, loaded with grape, and accompanied by a warm fire of musquetry. The shot fell so thick, that it was a miracle that one escaped, but the night greatly favoured us.

"The first explosion, which took place in a few minutes, was very great, and seemed to strike the enemy with general consternation.—Their firing seemed to cease for a minute or two, and then to be pointed towards the explosion. In the course of some time six or seven more machines exploded, but through some mismanagement several failed going off.

"The coffers are made of thick plank lined with lead. A plank is left out for filling it.—When filled, the plank is put in, nailed and caulked, paid all over with tar, covered with canvas, and paid with hot pitch. Some of them, when full, might weigh two tons. I may compare their outward form to a large log of mahogany, formed like a wedge at each end. There was a line affixed to one end, with something like an anchor. This line and anchor was floated with pieces of cork, intended to hook their cables, that the coffer might swing round, and lie alongside; the other line is the towing line. The coffers were weighted with shot, so as only just to float, by which means they would scarcely be struck by any shot in the water, and could pass undiscovered.

"After our machines were let go, we continued pulling about for two hours, to render assistance to other boats that might require it.

"We then, after a hard pull (the wind and tide being right in) got on board our nearest ship.

"I consider the great risk we ran of being sunk or killed by their shot or musquetry, the chance of their sending out their boats, and the certainty of being taken, had the wind freshened, and of death, had we been taken. I thank God for protecting us, for our escape I consider as wonderful."

Another Account by an Officer to his Friend in Edinburgh.

"On Tuesday we endeavoured to annoy the enemy in the road of Boulogne, with explosion vessels, and carcasses or wooden boxes, filled with gun powder and fire-balls. I went in first with Mr Bartholomew, in a plunger or float, towing two carcasses, and cut them adrift some little distance from the enemy's line. Our boats were hailed, but they could not discover me, as my head only

was

was out of the water. In about five minutes they opened a fire of musquetry, but without hurting a single man. It was rather cold, being in the water two or three hours at night, but I felt no inconvenience from it. A number of other vessels followed as soon as mine exploded. It was first intended that I should sail into the harbour with Mr Bartholomew, and endeavour to get two carcasses in, but there were too many brigs, &c. in the road to attempt it."

(Farther detail of Naval Operations in our next.)

SCOTLAND.

Circuit Intelligence.

Jedburgh, Sept. 10.

Lord Armadale.

Arch. Douglas and Robert Douglas, weavers in Hawick, were indicted for stealing a quantity of carpet yarn from the dyehouse of Messrs Robertson and Co. there, in March 1803; but from the distance of time, it being difficult to identify the goods stolen, the Advocate Depute declined insisting. The Jury found the libel not proven, and the pannels were assoilzied.

Dumfries, Sept. 15.

Lords Armadale and Meadowbank.

John Cook, labourer in Kirkcudbright, was indicted for committing a rape upon Susan Caffield, a young girl of 14 years of age. The Jury unanimously found the pannel guilty, and he was sentenced to be executed at Dumfries on the 24th of October. But he has received a respite for 14 days.

Pierce Irving and Catharine Irving, his sister, were indicted for uttering notes of the Greenock Bank, knowing them to be forged.——The Jury unanimously found the libel not proven, and the pannels were assoilzied.

Ayr, September 20.

Lord Meadowbank.

The only business before the Court was an indictment against William M'Adam, labourer at Kilkerran, for the murder of Thomas M'Kenzie, also labourer there, by striking him on the head with a grape. M'Adam failed to appear, and sentence of outlawry was pronounced against him.

Stirling, Sept. 12.

Lords Justice Clerk and Cullen.

Andrew Burt, nailor in Camelon, was indicted for the murder of David Callander, one of his apprentices, by striking him upon the head with a rod of iron. The Jury found, by a majority of 10 to 5, the pannel guilty of culpable homicide; and he was sentenced to be whipt on Thursday the 11th October, receiving ten stripes opposite to the door of his work-shop or smithy in Camelon, where the deceased was killed; seventy stripes at seven different stations in the town of Falkirk; afterwards to be brought back to Camelon, and to receive other ten stripes, also opposite to the door of his smithy, when he is to be recommitted to the tolbooth of Stirling, therein to be detained until transported beyond seas for the space of fourteen years.

Pearson Steven, officer of excise at Denny, accused of firing a pistol, loaded with ball, at Gilbert M'Pherson, spirit-dealer at Lochend, and wounding him in the head, to the danger of his life. The Jury finding, by a plurality of voices, the libel *not proven*, the pannel was assoilzied *simpliciter* from the bar.

Inverary, Sept. 17.

Lord Cullen.

John M'Fee, A. Ramsay, Archibald M'Dougall, R. Shaw, C. Campbell, Anne Campbell, and Alex. Darroch, all residing upon the estate of A. Campbell, Esq. proprietor of Jura, were accused of committing depredations upon the cargo of a vessel from the West Indies, wrecked there lately, and of assaulting the master. M'Dougall, Shaw, Campbell, and Anne Campbell, were outlawed. The Jury found the libel *Not Proven* against Ramsay, Darroch, and M'Fee, and they were acquitted.

Duncan M'Arthur, son of Neil M'Arthur, residing at Dail, was indicted for the murder of Elizabeth M'Kinnon, his wife, in October last. The dead body had been found in the morning after the murder, lying upon the banks of the Crinan Canal, with the feet in the Canal, and it was supposed the murder had been perpetrated by strangulation on the evening preceding, as the deceased was on her way to the village of Lochgilphead, accompanied by her husband. The Jury, all in one voice,

voice, found the prisoner Guilty, and he was sentenced to be hanged upon the 31st of October next, and his body thereafter to be publicly dissected.

Duncan Campbell, Neil Campbell, and John Macfarlane, were accused of an assault upon Alex. M'Yiel, and taking from him a pocket-book, containing two bills, owing by some of these persons. The diet was deserted, and warrant granted for their recommitment: but on finding bail they were liberated.

Glasgow, Sept. 23.

LORD CULLEN.

Alexander Colquhoun, carter in Camlachie, was indicted for the death of Hugh Tagart, an infirm old pauper, by driving his cart over him on the public road. The Jury, by a plurality of voices, found the pannel guilty of *culpable homicide*. The Court sentenced him to be imprisoned for one month.

James Buchanan, at Hilsonburgh, accused of forging and issuing bills. He pleaded *guilty*; and the Advocate Depute restricted the libel to an arbitrary punishment. A Jury having been empannelled, the prisoner adhered to his confession, in presence of the Court; they returned a verdict, all in one voice, finding the pannel guilty, and the Court adjudged him to be transported beyond seas during all the days of his life.

Thos. Lochhead, labourer, accused of robbery. The Jury finding, by a plurality of voices, the libel *not proven*, the pannel was assoilzied *simpliciter* from the bar. A petition however having been presented on the part of his Majesty's Advocate, praying that the pannel might be committed on a new warrant, as guilty of various thefts of cattle, he was recommitted accordingly.

Donald Johnson, accused of theft, was outlawed for non-appearance.

Peter Jack, John Tosh, and Duncan M'Lean, accused of theft, and John Ralston, and William Duff, accused of reset of theft. Jack, Tosh, and M'Lean, pleaded guilty, and Ralston and Duff not guilty. Jack and Tosh were two boys extremely young, neither of them more than eleven or twelve years of age. The Jury, in the case of Jack and others, found them guilty, in terms of their judicial declarations; but in respect of the youth of the said Peter Jack and John Tosh, recommended them strongly to the clemency of the Court; found unanimously the said John Ralston guilty of the first article charged against him in the libel, and with respect to Duff, found the libel not proven. Duff was assoilzied, and Jack, Tosh, and M'Lean, were ordered to be imprisoned for eight days, and John Ralston to be imprisoned for three months.

Charles Clydesdale, and John Ferguson, for theft, by stealing from the cart of David Dunlop, bleacher at Craigtown, a large bale of muslins of considerable value. The Jury found the pannels Guilty, and they were sentenced to be transported beyond seas for fourteen years.

Robert Barr, carter in Tradestown, for sheep-stealing. The diet was deserted, and warrant granted for committing him anew.

Elizabeth Fraser, accused of child-murder; but the pannel praying for banishment, the Court banished her from Scotland for fourteen years.

The Court afterwards heard and determined several appeals in civil causes.

Perth, Sept. 15.

LORDS DUNSINNAN and CRAIG.

Barbara Jackson was indicted for child-murder. But having petitioned for banishment, to which the Advocate depute consented, she was banished Scotland for seven years.

Anne Thomson, Margaret Forbes, and Catharine Forbes, were indicted for resetting linens stolen from a bleach-field. The Court deserted the diet, and they were recommitted on a new warrant, but liberated on bail.

John Battersby corporal, and James Kean private, in the 2d regiment of reserve, were indicted for high-way robbery. A few days before, they had found means to escape from jail, but Battersby was re-apprehended.—Kean was outlawed.—And the Court having deserted the diet against Battersby, he was recommitted on a new warrant.

Inverness, Sept. 22.

LORD CRAIG.

Catharine Junor, *alias* M'Kay, accused of breaking into the shop of Lachlan M'Intosh, merchant in Tain, and of stealing several articles of merchandize.

The

The Jury having heard her judicial confession, returned a verdict finding her Guilty. She was sentenced to be transported beyond seas for life.

Ann Calder was accused of house-breaking and theft; and the public prosecutor having passed from the charge of house-breaking, the pannel, in presence of the Court and Jury, acknowledged her guilt of the acts of theft charged against her, and the Jury returned a verdict accordingly. She was sentenced to be transported beyond seas for fourteen years.

Peter Young, accused of theft, petitioned for banishment; the public prosecutor having consented, he is sentenced to banishment for life.

Aberdeen, Sept. 29.

LORD CRAIG.

John Fordyce, smith in Howburn, was indicted for the murder of his wife. The Jury found the pannel guilty of *Culpable Homicide*, and he was sentenced to be imprisoned for six months, and to be banished Scotland for 14 years.

Janet Monro, alias Rose, was indicted for theft, and pleading guilty, and acknowledging that she had been often banished the town and county before, she was sentenced to be transported for 14 years.

Agnes Davidson, accused of child-murder, was on her petition for banishment, accordingly banished for 5 years.

COURT MARTIAL.

GENERAL ORDERS.

At a General Court Martial, held at Edinburgh Castle, on Monday the 10th day of September 1804, whereof Lieutenant-Colonel William Ponsonby, of the 5th Regiment of Dragoon Guards, was President, for the trial of the following Six Prisoners, viz.

I. John Adams, private soldier in the 5th regiment of dragoon guards, for deserting from said regiment upon the 23d of April last.—Found guilty, and sentenced to be transported for life as a felon.

II. Alexander Keay, private in the 6th royal veteran battalion, for stealing a musket out of the King's stores on the 10th September last.—Found guilty, and sentenced to receive 500 lashes, at such time and place as General the Earl of Moira shall direct.

III. Donald Macdonald; and, IV. James Bruce, private soldiers in the Canadian Fencible Regiment, for repeated disobedience of orders, exciting mutiny, and refusing to march with their company when ordered, and advising other men to do the same.—Found guilty of the first charge only, and sentenced James Bruce to receive 500 lashes, and Donald Macdonald to receive 800 lashes.

V. Angus Macfarlane, private in the Canadian Fencible Regiment, for quitting his ranks at parade, on the 23d of August last, and behaving in a manner unbecoming the character of a soldier.—Found guilty, and sentenced to receive 500 lashes.

VI. Roderick Fraser, private in the Canadian Fencible Regiment, for rescuing John M'Clean, of the same regiment, from the Hospital Guard, on the 23d of August last.—Found Guilty, and sentenced to receive one thousand lashes.

The four last recommended to mercy.

General the Earl of Moira approves the above four sentences.—As he concurs entirely in the consideration upon which the Court has recommended the prisoners to mercy, he remits the punishments severally adjudged; unconditionally in the cases of Donald Macdonald, James Bruce, and Angus Macfarlane; in the case of Roderick Fraser, upon the condition that he shall engage for unlimited service in a regiment of the line.

It having been industriously circulated, that many men had been induced to enlist in the Canadian regiment by delusive promises which Government would not have been bound to fulfil, it is fitting, on this occasion, to state, that a Court of Enquiry was kept sitting at Glasgow for many days, to examine into any such cases as might be brought before them; and Major General Wemyss had instructions to cause it to be explained to the men, that every one who suspected himself to be imposed upon in his engagement, might lay his cause before the Court, in order that he might receive his discharge from the Earl of Moira, if it appeared that he had been attested under false pretences. No case of the sort occurred; the enlistments of certain men who had been engaged upon fallacious representations by one M'Eachen (now

in

in jail for that offence) having before been declared null and void, unless where the individual himself, on explanation of the real terms held out by Government, desired that the agreement should stand good.

Adjutant General's Office, Edinburgh, 28th Sept. 1804.

It is General the Earl of Moira's order, that the foregoing charges, sentences, and recommendations, together with his Lordship's decisions and observations thereupon, shall be read at the head of every regiment and corps of the regular and militia forces in North Britain, and entered in their respective orderly books.

ALEX. MACKAY,
D. ADJ.-GENERAL.

COURT OF SESSION.—*June 9.*

KEITH *v.* M'LEAY.

This case, though unimportant in itself, yet as a precedent on a general point to the Magistrates of all the Royal Burghs in Scotland, seems to merit notice.

William Keith, late merchant-tailor in Wick, having, by the death of a brother, succeeded to a considerable property in the island of Tobago, it became necessary for him to transmit a power of attorney to the West Indies for the recovery thereof, which in terms of the Act of Parliament 5th Geo. II. cap. 7. required the affidavits of witnesses to the propinquity annexed, taken before the chief residing Magistrate of the nearest Royal Burgh, and the seal of the Burgh affixed. Such power of attorney was accordingly prepared and executed by Mr William Keith, before two respectable gentlemen as witnesses in March last, and the necessary affidavits annexed, with which the witnesses, at Mr Keith's desire, immediately waited on Mr William M'Leay, the first Bailie, and as such chief residing Magistrate of the burgh of Wick, requesting him to make the affidavits and affix the town seal. But Mr M'Leay observing that the power of attorney and affidavits were in the handwriting of a son of Mr Keith's, with whom he had some difference, peremptorily refused to take or attest the affidavits and affix the seal. Upon this, Keith immediately wrote to Mr John Rose, the Town Clerk, (who resides at the distance of 20 miles from the Burgh,) stating the case, and requesting if he could not attend himself, that he would at least direct his Depute to conduct the business, as there was danger in delay. Mr Rose answered, "That the Town's Seal lay at the disposal of the Magistrates, and that when they should order it to be applied, he would either do it, or order his Depute to do so." Keith next applied to Mr M'Phail, the Second Bailie, to do the duty, who readily agreed, but could not get access to the town seal, which remained in the custody of Mr M'Leay. In this situation, Keith being advised that the only remedy lay with the Court of Session, presented a petition and complaint to the Lord Ordinary on the bills. In the answers for Mr M'Leay to this complaint, the facts were admitted, but he pled, that the act 5 Geo. II. only authorised and empowered the Chief Magistrate to administer the oath, &c. but did not require him to do so, and therefore clearly gave him a discretionary power, either to administer and certify the oaths, or to *refuse* to do so, as he thought proper, &c. The Lords Craig and Armadale, Ordinaries on the bills, directed the petitions and answers, &c. to be printed and boxed, in order to be reported to the Court, and on the 9th June, the same were advised by the whole Lords, when they unanimously disapproved of Bailie Mac-Leay's conduct, and ordained him, as chief residing Magistrate, instantly to administer and certify the affidavits, and to affix the town seal, and found him liable to Keith in full expences.

CANINE MADNESS.

The following melancholy and well-attested case of this terrible malady, while it must necessarily increase the dread of it, should also stimulate to an uninterrupted and long-continued application of the usual remedies, as it clearly shews that the poison may remain dormant for a considerably longer period than is generally supposed.

To GILBERT GRIERSON, Esq.
Senior Magistrate of Leith.

SIR,

As you have thought it your duty to call upon me for an authenticated account of the melancholy instance of canine madness in Thomas Mason, porter, Giles Street, that it may serve as a cau-

tion

ton to others, and a motive to particular vigilance in future, I send you the following note.

Upon the 9th December last, in passing through Quality Street, he was called to assist in killing a mad dog. He seized the dog by the throat; it bit his hand nearly through betwixt the bones of the thumb and forefinger, and retained the hold until it was stabbed.

On Thursday last the symptoms of this terrible disease commenced with pain and numbness of the arm and hand bit, and spasms in the neck and chest. On Friday the horror of water became the most striking symptom of the disease, and was marked in the most unequivocal manner, for even the word *water* threw him into violent convulsions and alarm. The disease now took its most dreadful form: But the description of these symptoms here can have no useful purpose. On Tuesday he was exhausted and died. I may farther remark to you, that all uneasiness and alarm for the consequences of the bite had long ceased with this poor man, and imagination had nothing to do with the disease.

If any thing farther than the characteristic symptoms were necessary to prove the existence of this disease, and make the most sceptical gladly acquiesce in every measure of precaution, that proof might be found in the appearance on dissection—The body was very minutely examined by Mr Charles Bell, who is accustomed to controul every feeling of disgust or apprehension, where the interests of humanity may be in the event benefited by such investigations. The throat, stomach, and brain, were much diseased.

I have the honour to be, Sir,
Your most obedient servant,
J. CHEYNE, Jun. M. D.

Leith, 9th August 1804.

MAGISTRATES OF EDINBURGH.

Elected Oct. 2.

The Magistrates and Council walked in procession from the Council Chamber to the High Church, where an excellent discourse was preached by the Rev. Mr. Brunton, one of the ministers of this city, from Prov. xxi. 21. "He that followeth after righteousness and mercy, findeth life, righteousness, and honour." After divine service, they returned to the Council Chamber, and elected the following Magistrates for the ensuing year.

The Right Hon. SIR WILLIAM FETTES of Wamphray, Bart. Lord Provost.

William Coulter, Esq.
Arch. Campbell, Esq.
John Turnbull, Esq.
James Goldie, Esq. } Bailies.

John Muir, Esq. Dean of Guild.
Peter Hill, Esq. Treasurer.

James Carfrae, Esq. Old Provost.

James Dewar, Esq.
Thomas M'Ritchie, Esq.
William Calder, Esq.
George White, Esq. } Old Bailies.

T. Henderson, Esq. Old Dean of Guild.
Walter Dickson, Esq. Old Treasurer.

Mess. John M'Kinlay,
John Dick,
Abrah. Newton, } Merchant Councillors.

William Ranken,
John Bennet, } Trades Councillors.

J. Young, Conven.
Thomas Miller,
John Sutherland,
John Cameron,
James Newton
Robert Pridie, } Ordinary Council Deacons.

John Rae,
James M'Kenzie,
William Ritchie,
William White,
John Square,
T. Malcolm, jun.
James Thomson,
John Cumming, } Extra Council Deacons.

William Calder, Esq. Admiral of Leith.
Thomas M'Ritchie, Esq. Baron Bailie of Canongate and Calton.
George White, Esq. Baron Bailie of Easter and Wester Portsburgh.
Mr John MacKinlay, Captain of Orange Colours.

RESIDENT MAGISTRATES.

Canongate and Calton.

Messrs George Rae,
Joseph Brown, } Bailies.
Alexander Boog, *Treasurer.*

Easter and Wester Portsburgh.

Messrs Robert Simpson,
David Smith, } Bailies.

Guild Court.

John Muir, Esq. Dean of Guild.
T. Henderson, Esq. Old Dean of Guild.
Messrs James Waddell, John Fairbairn, John Young, Thomas Hamilton, and John Thin, Counsellors.

Master

Master and Assistants of the Merchant Company of Edinburgh, elected Sept. 3.

WILLIAM RAMSAY, Jun. Esq. Banker, *Master.*

Assistants.

Mess. G. Kinnear	Mess. Donald Smith
Walter Lothian	R. S. Moncrieff
George White	senior.
George Spankie	Robert Strong
William Hunter	Alex. Hutchison
William Coulter	and
John Dick	Robert Kerr

Mr George Brunton, *Treasurer.*

Prices of Oat Meal in Edinburgh Market, per Peck.

Oct. 2. 9. 16. 23. 15d. Oct. 30. 15½d.

Prices of Grain per quarter, Corn Exchange, London.

1804.	Wheat.		Barley		Oats.		Peafe.	
	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.	s.
Oct. 1.	70	80	31	36	24	29	40	48
8.	70	81	32	39	24	29	42	50
15.	72	86	36	43	23	28	4[illegible]	50
22.	72	87	38	45	25	3[illegible]	48	53

Prices of Grain at Haddington.

1804.	Wheat.		Barley.		Oats.		Peafe.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Oct. 5.	37	0	24	0	20	0	20	0
12.	38	0	26	0	20	0	19	6
19.	40	0	27	0	21	0	20	0
26.	43	0	27	0	21	0	20	0

MARRIAGES.

June 3. At Demarary, Robert Gordon, Esq. late of the Hope estate, to Miss Ann Parkinson.

Sept. 3. At Eymouth, Doctor Robert Stevenson, of Newcastle, to Miss Jane Dow, of Edinburgh.

16. At Edinburgh, Lieutenant James Steele, of the Dumfriesshire militia, to Miss Fanny Edgar, daughter of Mr John Edgar, accountant in Excise.

4. At Portsmouth, James Colquhoun, Esq. of London, to Miss Mary Poore.

5. At London, John Drummond of Lenock, Esq. in the county of Perth, to Miss Copson of Sutton, in Leicestershire.

— At ———, James Brownrig of Edenbery, Esq. to Miss Hart, daughter of the late Colonel James Hart.

15. At London, James Thomson, Esq. of Jamaica, to Miss Ann Thomson, of the same island.

—. At Wallazey in Cheshire, Captain A. W. Schomberg, second son of the late Sir Alexander Schomberg, to Miss Ann Smith, daughter of Rear-Admiral Smith.

24. At Glasgow, Mr James Robertson, merchant, to Miss Agnes Sym, daughter of the late Mr Andrew Sym, merchant.

25. At Cheltenham, Mr Best, to Lady Emilia Stratford, daughter of the Earl of Aldborough.

27. At Dumfries, Mr William M'Crie, merchant, to Miss Helen Neilson, daughter of the Reverend Edward Neilson, minister of Kirkbean.

Oct. 2. At Culter, Mr William Wilson, junr. to Miss Margaret Dickson, eldest daughter of Mr John Dickson of Culter.

2. At Leith, C. D. Sillery, Esq. Royal Artillery, to Miss Catharine Fyfe, youngest daughter of the late Barclay Fyfe, Esq.

3. At London, Lieutenant Colonel M'Kinnon, of the Coldstream Foot-Guards, son of William M'Kinnon, Esq. of Antigua, to Miss Call, daughter of the late Sir John Call, Baronet.

4. At Edinburgh, Peter Martin, Esq. to Miss Euphemia Davie, second daughter of the late John Davie of Gavieside, Esq.

—. At Lauriston, the Reverend James Luke, minister of Greenlaw, to Miss Eliza Keir, youngest daughter of Mr Adam Keir, formerly baker in Edinburgh.

11. At Rennyhill, Fifeshire, the Reverend Andrew Carstairs, Kingsbarns, to Miss Mary Dickson, Prestonpans.

BIRTHS.

May 26. At Malta, the Lady of Doctor Stoddard, his Majesty's Advocate there, a daughter.

Aug. 24. At Ardintrive, Argyleshire, the Lady of Archibald Campbell, Esq. Paymaster of the 92d Regiment, a daughter.

27. At ——, Mrs Colonel M'Donald, Lyndal, a son.

Sept 10. At Ewell in Surry, the Lady of Sir George Glynn, Baronet, a son.

12. At Kirkfield, Lanarkshire, Mrs. Cochran of Kirkfield, a daughter.

12. At Elyhouse, the Lady of Colonel Robert Anstruther, a daughter.

—— Lately, the Lady of Admiral Campbell,

Campbell, of the Portuguese navy, a daughter.

14. At Comrie, Mrs Clark of Comrie, a son.

—. At ——, Mrs Cunningham of Craigends, a son.

16. At ——, Lady Grant of Monymusk, a daughter.

20. At London, the Lady of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, of a still-born son.

—. At Edinburgh, Mrs Dirom of Mount Annan, a daughter.

—. At London, the Lady of Colonel Henderson, a son.

21. At London, the Lady of John Erskine, Esq. a daughter.

22. At Edinburgh, Mrs Kinnear, wife of George Kinnear, Esq. banker, a son.

—. At Cheeseburn Grange, Northumberland, the Lady of Ralph Riddell, Esq. a son and heir.

28. At Boughton place, the Lady of Lord Southampton, a son and heir.

—. At London, Lady Emily Wellesley, a son.

—. At Kimbolton Castle, the Duchess of Manchester, a daughter.

30. At Letham, Mrs Buchan Hepburn, a son.

—. At Edinburgh, Mrs Betty, of Hopton Wafer, in Salop, of a daughter. She is mother of young Roscius.

Oct. 1. At Edinburgh, Mrs Captain Mitchell, a daughter.

2. At London, Lady Margaret Walpole, a daughter.

4. At Edinburgh, Mrs Molle of Mains, a daughter.

6. At Lord Ankerville's house, St Andrew's Square, Edinburgh, the Lady of David Ross, younger of Ankerville, Esq. a son.

—. At Logie, Mrs Cumming of Logie, a son.

8. At Urrard, the Lady of Major Alston, a son.

DEATHS.

April —. At Madras, Miss Ann Elizabeth Stuart, daughter of General James Stuart, Commander in Chief of that Presidency.

—. At Surat in India, Lieut. John Knight Hall, 75th regiment.

May 25. On board his Majesty's ship the Victory, Lieut. Fenn Reid, acting Lieut. of that ship, in consequence of a wound he received a few days before on the island of Sardinia, from one of the inhabitants, who attempted to rob him. Mr Reid, having no other weapon than his dirk, resisted the attack; but the assassin being armed with a musket, discharged the contents, which entered his left breast, and passed through the corresponding arm pit, so as to render amputation necessary.

June 1. At ——, Lieut. Kinghorn, of the Hound sloop of war, of the yellow fever.

25. At St Vincents, Captain Henry Campbell, 11th regiment, late Brigade Major to Gen. Kerr.

—. On her passage home from Dominica, of the yellow fever, aged 23, Mrs Elizabeth Blake, wife of Captain George Blake, 46th regiment.

—. In the West Indies, Capt. Richard Tew, 46th regiment.

28. At Antigua, of the yellow fever, Lieut. George Mellis of the 70th regiment.

—. At Surinam, Capt Francis Carleton, 16th regiment.

July —. At Surinam, of the yellow fever, Mrs Loftie, wife of Captain Loftie, 16th regt. also his infant daughter.

13. At Stoneyhill Barracks, Jamaica, of the yellow fever, Major George Otway, 85th foot.

—. At Cambridge, in Pennsylvania, aged 71, Stephen Sewell, Esq. formerly Hancock Professor of Oriental Languages.

29. At Philadelphia, of a *cholera morbus*, Major General William Irvine, President of the *Cincinnati* Society of New-York, and a distinguished officer in the American war.

13. At Malta, Col. Read. He has left 40,000l. to his relations, and 60,000l. to his acquaintances.

—. At Toulon, Rear Admiral Touche Treville, commander of the Toulon fleet.

—. At Frascati near Rome, in his 6th year, Mons. Leclerc, son of General Leclerc, who died at St Domingo. His mother is sister of the Bonaparte's, and married a second time to Prince Borghese of Rome.

—. At Angervillers in France, aged 72, Cardinal de Boisgelin, Archbishop of Tours.

Aug. 15. At Riga, Mr James Stein, formerly an eminent distiller at Kilbagie in Fifeshire.

30. On his passage from Leith to London.

London, suddenly, Lieutenant Charles M'Pherson, 81st regiment.

Sept. 2. At London, Miss Cleeve, eldest daughter of the Rev. Mr Alexander Cleeve, and on October 17. Miss Elizabeth Cleeve, second daughter of the same gentleman.

3. At Waltham Cross, Mrs Mowatt, relict of Captain Francis Mowatt.

—. At Rimsauld, Sutherlandshire, aged 80, Lieutenant-Colonel John Sutherland, of General Stuart's Regiment of the late Scots Brigade. He served in Holland and Flanders for upwards of 45 years, and was esteemed a good soldier and an honest man.

5. At London, Sir Charles Style, Baronet, of Wateringbury, in Kent.

6. At Alderston, West Lothian, after a short illness, Mrs Stewart, wife of Robert Stewart, Esq. of Alderston.

—. At Aberdeen, Mr Robert Davidson, of the Navy pay-office, London, son of the Reverend Patrick Davidson, minister of Rayne.

—. At ——, aged 64, Thomas Percival, M. D. F. R. S. and A. of Manchester.

—. At London, Mr George Cawthorne, bookseller, successor to Mr John Bell, of the British Library, in the Strand.

8. At Stanstead, in Sussex, aged 63, Richard Barwell, Esq. late M. P. for Winchelsea, and formerly senior Member of the Council of Bengal, from which he returned about 25 years since, with an immense fortune.

9. At Perth, Mr Patrick Miller, town-clerk.

---. At Southend in Essex, of an apoplexy, John Ibbetson, Esq. Secretary to Greenwich Hospital, and formerly second Secretary to the Admiralty.

---. At Edinburgh, Mr Andrew Bannantyne, clerk in the Banking-house of Messrs Mansfield, Ramsay, and Co. for nearly 38 years.

10. At Dumfries, General Sir Robert Laurie of Maxweltoun, Baronet, Colonel of the 8th dragoons, Knight Marischal of Scotland, and M. P. for the county of Dumfries for nearly 30 years.

---. At Edinburgh, aged 39, Mr Archibald Gilchrist, an eminent haberdasher, and lately one of the Magistrates of that city.

12. At Manse of Balquhidder, the Rev. Duncan Stewart, minister of that parish.

---. At Inverkip, James Alexander Fraser, only surviving son of Mrs James Fraser, Greenock.

---. At Glasgow, Mr John Watson, late Rector of the Grammar School in Dundee.

13. At Barkmill, aged 74, Mr William Raitt, merchant in Aberdeen.

—. At Coull, near Auchterarder, Mrs Alexander Stewart.

15. At Moira, suddenly, the Rev. Adam Gilbert, minister of the seceding congregation there.

---. At Haughhead, Hubert Marshall, Esq.

---. At Wyton in Holderness, aged 27, Thomas Moorhouse Bramley, Esq. When out shooting, he was unfortunately wounded in the leg, by the gun of his companion accidentally going off, and a locked jaw ensuing on the ninth day, terminated in his death.

16. At Dumfries, Mr James Gibson, son of the late Mr Joseph Gibson, master of the King's Arms Inn there, who died on the 20th July last.

17. At Maulesden, near Brechin, David Ferrier, Esq. formerly commander of a country ship in the East Indies.

---. At Edinburgh, Mr Alexander Sivewright, comb-maker there.

---. At Merton, Berwickshire, Charles Walter Scott, eldest son of Hugh Scott of Harden, Esq.

---. At Tillyhill, William Telfer of Balgonar, Esq.

---. At Claggan, near Fort-William, Mrs Captain Macdonell, of Tulloch.

18. At Aberdeen, aged 52, Mrs Margaret Reid, spouse of the Reverend Dr John Ogilvie, minister of Midmar.

19. At London, aged 63, Mr Matthews, bookseller in the Strand.

---. At Chertsey, aged 44, the Right Honourable Lady Stawell, one of the Ladies of the Bed-chamber to Princesses Augusta and Elizabeth.

—. At Newcastle, suddenly, while instructing his scholars, M. Mesnard, many years a French teacher there.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

"Observations made in a Tour to parts of Orkney and Shetland in 1804."—*A. S.*,—and "*The Pedlar*," by *James Hog*, will appear in our next.

An Elegiac address to the Ruins of the Castle of Strathaven, and several other pieces, are received.